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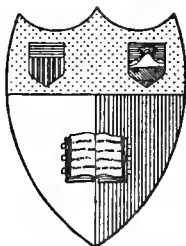
WANDERINGS

WEST AND EAST

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(Taken at Tokyo, Japan.)

WANDERINGS, WEST AND EAST.

BY THE

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P R E F A C E

I COMMIT this account of my wanderings to public criticism with considerable hesitation, conscious that almost the same route has been previously traversed and described by others. Yet some details may possibly be useful to a few, and not improbably interesting to friends and former pupils.

Complete deafness necessarily cuts me off (especially on board ship) from much pleasant intercourse. The preparation of this volume has been a solace both on sea and land in hours which otherwise would have been weary.

I have to thank a Professor long resident in Japan for revising chapters iv. and v.; an experienced official in Hong-Kong for improving chapter vi.; a former resident in the Straits Settlements for looking over chapter viii.; and also other friends.

E. B.

WAKES COLNE RECTORY, ESSEX.

April 1899.

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WANDERINGS, WEST AND EAST



CHAPTER I

THE ATLANTIC AND CANADA

IT is not often that a man, who for some time has passed the meridian of his life, is able to wander away from house and home and to seek "fresh fields and pastures new" in far-distant lands. It became, however, my duty to take a relative to Canada, and to visit her home in British Columbia; then, having relatives in Hong Kong and Japan, it seemed best to go on from Vancouver and return to old England by the Pacific, Ceylon, Aden, Egypt, and Italy.

But before a clergyman can leave his parish for a period exceeding three months, he must obtain special permission; and in my case the consent of the Archbishop of Canterbury was needed, as well as that of my own bishop. This was readily

accorded, a good substitute provided, and I was free for nine months.

The steamer that took us from Liverpool was as full of all sorts and conditions of men as it could well be. Two bishops, two or three Irish or French priests, a Presbyterian minister or two, boating men from Henley, Mounted Police (as they are called) of the North-West (Canadian) Territories, professors and scientific men going to the gathering of the British Association at Toronto, riflemen returning from the Jubilee, Swedes, Japanese, and Jews, more than a hundred "Barnardo" boys and girls, made up a motley throng, yet one in which a friendly feeling seemed universal. The weather was so fine that games of all kinds were played : to pick up a potato in a spoon and carry it safely to a certain point was not regarded as beneath the dignity of any one ; and a conscientious Scotchman, from whom I had carried off the prize kindly inquired, "How do you and I stand?" He evidently thought that the contest involved a certain sum of money !

Our course to Quebec lay north of the route usually followed by the steamers for New York. We saw (in August) numerous icebergs, one 173 feet high ; and as we lay at anchor in a fog in the gulf of the St. Lawrence, an iceberg bore down upon us in the night. The captain was on the bridge, saw the danger, ordered the anchor up, and

the ship to be moved ; otherwise we might have been in serious trouble.

Religious services were held, not only on Sunday, but also other days. On one occasion the subject selected by the preacher was the Miracle at Cana in Galilee. An abstainer himself (as he told his hearers), he could not honestly say that he thought it wrong to use the gifts of God in moderation ; he advised all who could not, to abstain altogether. This sentiment excited one temperance man in the audience to such a degree that he marked his Bible at the passage, "Wine is a mocker ; strong drink is raging," and showed it to the preacher. Others interposed, and one man, quoting St. Paul's advice to Timothy "no longer to drink water, but to take a little wine for his stomach's sake," added that the wine was probably intended for outward application !

It is well for every one who goes, if only once in his life, to sea, at some time or other to be enveloped in a fog ; otherwise he cannot realise how serious is the danger, and what the anxiety of the responsible officers must be. The scream of the steam-whistle, repeated at frequent intervals, has been said to suggest the lamentation of lost souls in Sheol. Then at length the engines, which have been reduced to half speed, are stopped ; the anchor is dropped ; the ding-dong of bells begins and goes on until the fog clears. Happily, in our case, although

an iceberg nearly swamped us in the night, we had not long to wait, nor was our patience sorely tried.

The St. Lawrence is a noble river, thirty miles wide at its mouth. Here, almost for the first time, we met some ships. The loneliness of the ocean in some parts is well-nigh appalling. A few main tracks may be frequented, but the bye-paths are solitudes rarely visited—a waste of waters seldom scanned by the eye of man. As we ascended the river, numerous villages fringed the southern bank. The French Canadians, unlike their relatives in Europe, increase rapidly, and thrive beneath the rule of the British crown. Allowed the free exercise of their religion (they are chiefly Roman Catholics), they are loyal to their adopted country. The Roman Church in France is in constant conflict with the civil power; in Canada, beneath British rule, there is usually peace instead of war.

As we neared Quebec, on a glorious day, the scene was simply superb. Another river, the St. Charles, adds its waters not far away to the majestic St. Lawrence; the Falls of Montmorency, some miles off, glisten in the sunshine. On all sides are seen numerous buildings, amid which the noble pile erected for the provincial parliament stands conspicuous. The citadel towers over the stream and shows itself ready to protect the city that nestles around it.

Quebec is almost a French city; its streets have

French names, and French is evidently the language of its people. It is, too, chiefly Roman Catholic. We saw a procession of priests passing through the streets, and nunneries and nuns are quite features of the place.

But Quebec must always be associated with Wolfe and Montcalm.

On the Plains of Abraham is a monument to Wolfe, with the words, "Here died Wolfe victorious," and not far off is another memorial to both Wolfe and Montcalm, with a lovely Latin inscription, just to the merit and memory of two noble men, both of whom gave their lives for their countries' cause.

Our steamer took us on from Quebec to Montreal, where we arrived about midday on Sunday. What a crowd encountered us! The chief feature of this well-dressed crowd—a feature common from Quebec to Vancouver and Victoria—was the long, thin, narrow, pointed, brown, leather shoe, adapted, one would think, for Regent Street, but not for an agricultural country, as Canada is supposed to be! Go where you will in Canada, hundreds of miles away from the main line of rail, there are the long, narrow, pointed brown shoes or boots! Watch the men at an agricultural station; you may expect to see clod-hoppers and hobnailed boots, but you won't. They are not the fashion. You are no Canadian if you have no brown, long, narrow, pointed shoes. Montreal is a large and thriving manufacturing town,

more French than English, with wide streets, the huge telegraph-poles found in all Canadian cities, and the electric cars common to them, and (I believe) to most American cities. As Canadian streets are usually much wider than our own, the cars are run often at a great pace—a pace which in England would be impossible, and even in Canada is often dangerous. Accidents are constantly happening from collisions, and as the population increases these will be more frequent.

Toronto is a splendid city, full of fine buildings, with asphalted streets and suburbs denoting a prosperous population. Here the Scotch and English element comes into full play, and one might well suppose (were it not for the hideous poles and wires which disfigure the finest streets of all Canadian towns) that the city is in Britain.

Ottawa, wisely chosen by the Home Government as the seat of the Dominion Legislature, has as noble an array of buildings, I should think, as the world has seen. They are said to be the finest in America, and will certainly compare with not a few in Europe.

Winnipeg, the centre of the Western wheat trade, has a population of forty-three thousand people, and, if the price of wheat should rise, has probably a great future before it. The hard Manitoban wheat No. 1 is said to be the best in the world ; inspectors mark it, and, if it passes their examination, the price may be seventy-five cents a bushel, say, twenty-three

shillings per quarter. Few producers are likely to get more at present prices.¹ Vancouver, the terminus of the Canadian Pacific Railway, is near the mouth of the Fraser River, with Mount Baker, thirteen thousand feet high, usually covered with snow, not far away, other mountains rising at no great distance. The depth of water is such that the large and splendid "Empress" steamers of the Canadian Pacific Railway, vessels that cross the Pacific to Japan, and Hong Kong, come close to the wharf and receive and discharge cargoes without difficulty. It has some fine churches and the buildings nearly ready for the Provincial Parliament are a triumph of architectural art. Its natural history museum will well repay a visit.

Of the smaller towns I saw most of Fort William, Revelstoke, and Ashcroft. Fort William is famous for its elevators built by the Canadian Pacific Railway. These are enormous wooden buildings into which the freight-trams (as they are called) convey the grain from Manitoba and elsewhere: it is allowed to fall from the trucks, then raised by steam power, tested, weighed, and finally passed down into the hold, probably, of a vessel which will take it through the lakes to Montreal, whence it will be conveyed to Liverpool or elsewhere. Some of these elevators hold as much as 1,500,000 bushels each.

Revelstoke and Ashcroft are mining centres. Both

¹ Written in October 1897.

are in British Columbia, and both have Chinese settlements. The Chinese are no favourites with the miners. They are too industrious, and work at too cheap a rate. It is a common opinion (among the many charges made against them) that they mix silver filings with the gold dust which they offer for sale. Their gold therefore does not fetch so high a price. It is said that there is great difficulty in separating silver filings from gold.

Chinese are laundrymen and gardeners everywhere. At Victoria they raise and sell vegetables at so cheap a rate as to prevent it being worth while for others to attempt to grow them; labour is too dear. At Revelstoke I saw a sad case of an opium-eater wizened and deformed by excessive use of the drug. Many Chinese, however, if fed at their masters' and not their own expense, are as healthy and hearty men as one could wish to see. In this *Empress of India* (I am writing on the Pacific Ocean) there are more than fifty Chinamen—cooks, waiters, and general servants, as obliging and capable as could be desired.

Ashcroft, so named by Messrs. Cornwall, from Ashcroft in Gloucestershire (one of these brothers, by the bye, is now an "honourable" and a judge) is full of "teamsters" as well as Chinese; there is an Indian Reserve also not far away. These "teamsters" take freight waggons, drawn by five to ten horses or mules, two hundred miles or more to the mining

districts of the Cariboo country. Two waggons are usually connected and drawn by one team ; in very steep places (and the district is mountainous) the second waggon is left behind, the first taken forward and the second fetched by the returning team. The mountains around Ashcroft seem made of little else but sand or dust, and the temperature in summer sometimes exceeds a hundred degrees. Many people sleep at night in verandahs or in the open air. Yet, below the surface, the soil is good ; the river Thompson flows in full stream through the district, and the Chinese (as usual) raise good crops and prove that the soil has capacities for producing treasures as good in their way as gold or silver.

The flourishing condition of the working classes in such towns as these may be learnt by watching the saloons and those who visit them. At the chief hotel at Revelstoke a stream of men from the railway and elsewhere were flocking all day to the barbers' shop and the adjacent spot where "cordials" can be had ; miners sat for hours outside the smaller inns or in the saloons ; at Ashcroft the "bars," as we call them, of the two hotels, were crowded until a very late hour. Even between two and three in the morning I have seen a number of men drinking, and I am told that the police do not interfere unless a special complaint is made. Canada in truth at the present time is the paradise of the working man. The ordinary wage, even in Toronto, for a working

man is a dollar and a half a day (6s. 3d.); the miner earns two and a half to three dollars a day. The Indian in the hay or potato field expects a dollar, or a dollar and a half, besides three good meals of meat and potatoes, to say nothing of pastry and tea.

Coins of small value, like our pence, seem scarcely in use, except at the "Post Offices." The charge for the electric cars is twopence halfpenny per journey, reduced, it is true, if a number of tickets are taken. I have been from one end of Canada to the other, have wandered some hundred miles away from the great main road, the Canadian Pacific Railway, and have hardly received or used a coin of less value than five cents or $2\frac{1}{2}d.$

Most of the houses in Canada are made of wood. At first, when well painted, they are by no means devoid of beauty, and it is said that with double windows and heated by stoves (as they almost all are) they are comfortable, even in very cold weather. But the danger from fire, to say nothing of dilapidations, is often very serious. Frequent reports appear in the papers of three or four in one family being burnt to death. The heat of the summer is often very great, and the dried and heated wood is soon in a blaze. This autumn, even in October (1897) the thermometer has been very high, and terrible prairie-fires are reported from the neighbourhood of Ottawa, Manitoba, and several districts of the

States. A match thrown down amid dry moss will start a fire, and even near "beautiful Banff" (where a large area has been reserved for a National Park) the forest trees are burnt for many miles. Almost every house of two or more storeys has a ladder on the roof or at the wall side, to assist those escaping from the flames below. Even large hotels, built of brick, have iron ladders on the walls as a means of escape from devouring flames.

The connecting link of Montreal with Vancouver and Victoria is the Canadian Pacific or Transcontinental Railway. Trams run right across the Continent in five days, and sleeping cars (for which an extra charge is made) are provided for the night. The scenery, as the route runs amid the Rockies and the Selkirk Range, is open and grand, and beautiful beyond all description. Snow-sheds of the most elaborate and costly kind in some places protect the track from avalanches; in many parts the railway winds its way along the edge of precipices and cliffs, circles round and round a valley until it vanishes out of sight; then perhaps it runs between mountains clinging so close to each other that exit seems impossible; at one place a glacier, said to be larger than any in Europe, is within two miles of the train; and for the last few hundred miles the track follows the Thompson and Fraser Rivers.

These streams force their way with fury through opposing rocks, and at one spot where the train

stops, the rocks seem to have almost won the battle. You look down, and sixty feet below you see that the river with waters accumulated from contributions added in the course of many hundred miles, has forced a passage, and will continue its career.

It is satisfactory to know that this well-managed railway, this splendid monument of British and Canadian enterprise, is paying its way and promises well for the future. It is now the great high road from England to Japan and China; the excessive heat of the Red Sea is avoided; time too, and expense, are saved. A new and better route has been opened to the East by the Canadian Pacific Railway, and the steamers run in connection with their trains to Japan, China, and also to Australia.

Canadian fruit is very fine. I never saw finer apples than in a garden attached to a ranche fourteen hundred feet above the sea. But the owner had come from Gloucestershire, one of our best apple counties! A Chinaman too was in charge: the garden was easily irrigated; the results in any case were good. In each province there are experimental farms, and a valuable Blue Book is published each year by the Dominion Government, giving the results of experiments and trials. I have just had occasion to stock a garden at a ranche eighteen hundred feet above the sea: by consulting this Blue Book I got a list without difficulty of the most hardy and reliable trees. The expert is sent round in many districts

to the farmers, and shows them how to prune their trees. He says that in five minutes they learn what an hour's study of a book fails to teach them. Is there not here a lesson for our County Councils? No doubt the bright summer sun gives colour and sweetness to the Canadian apple, and in many places to the peach ; but the severe winter and late frosts must be put in the other scale. The farmers are taught that they must grow hard fruit if it is to travel ; and they are also taught to pack their fruit in suitable barrels and boxes, so that it shall travel uninjured. I was fortunate enough to see an exhibition of British Columbian fruit at New Westminster. The apples were very fine, highly coloured, and firm ; the pears were by no means up to the same average. But the season may have been unfavourable. Pears too are rather a luxury of the rich than a necessary article of food, like the apple.

Any notice of Canada would be incomplete without some reference to a special insect. A literary lady, learning that I was likely to visit the Dominion, wrote urging me to take special precautions against the " L. B." Keating's Insect Powder would not be sufficient—I must take some other preparation, the name of which I fear I have forgotten ! The letters puzzled me, and so did the mystic phrase of another good lady when she warned me to guard against the " B flat." When I urged a ranchman that swallows should be encouraged, in order that the mosquitos

should be eaten off in good time, he told me that swallows' nests were not allowed on houses, as they encouraged the presence of the "North American insect." The wooden houses and the wooden beds are a favourite habitation of this loathsome creature ; yet is he not a favourite rather than otherwise in the States? A "gold man," or "monometallist," is often called a "gold bug," and a well-known physician of San Francisco, born in England but naturalised in the States, wrote me word that he had been a "gold bug" for seventy years, but that he had now become a bimetallist! The very trying times experienced in the United States (twenty-five thousand men were said to be out of work in San Francisco during the winter of '96 and '97) had changed his views, and he had ceased to be a "gold bug." I should add that this "North American insect" appears to have been imported from our own country; the letters "L. B." are simply an abbreviation of London Bug!

An insect outside does much more serious mischief. At one ranche I learnt that half the crop of oats had been destroyed by "grasshoppers." These are really locusts, but the latter term is probably avoided, as more alarming than "grasshoppers" or "hoppers." Their attacks at present are confined chiefly to British Columbia. When I suggested that the fowls should be fed on the fields where the "hoppers" had been, so that any eggs might be got rid of in this

way, I was told that the fowls' eggs in that case would often be uneatable, and that the coyote (or prairie-wolf) would make short work of the fowls. Dr. Fletcher, in a report to the Department of Agriculture, remarks: "The large amount of damage done by 'locusts' is seldom realised. They frequent grass lands, and pass most of their lives low down among the stems of grasses. They don't develop wings until July. It is only after grass is cut, or in seasons of unusual drought, that the injuries they do are much noticed. 'Hopper-dozers'—pieces of sheet iron eight and a half feet long and two feet wide, coated on the upper side with tar—are drawn over the ground in May, when the insects are small, and cling readily to the tar. This is a favourite remedy in the States. If, too, the ground is ploughed up in the autumn, and the eggs buried or exposed to frost, the attacks of these 'hoppers' are weakened."

The Canadian, like his neighbour across the border, loves the man who has risen from the ranks. A highly respected clergyman, a Canon of the Episcopal Church, told me that his son had just become a "sailor before the mast," adding, "That is how we all begin here." He expects to be a captain in five years. The present Finance Minister and Premier of Victoria was a labourer at the docks at one time! But the history of an Englishman, told me by himself, seems very interesting.

"I was born at Doncaster, and attended the

grammar school there, when the numbers were about two hundred and fifty, and Doncaster Church when (Dean) Vaughan was rector. I went into a lawyer's office, expecting to be a solicitor. My father died, and I was thrown on my beam ends. So I came to Canada and worked as a teacher, and in other ways, until I handled pick and shovel as a workman on the Canadian Pacific "track" !

"I rose to be a foreman, and now (at thirty-two years of age) have the charge of about a hundred and ten miles of road and more than a hundred men under me."

This good man arranged for a service in a small station where he lived, played the harmonium and led the singing ; he also took me to the house of a Swede, where he asked me to baptize his child. The name given to the child was Enoch ; did not Enoch walk with God, and is not that a better name than many which are often given to our children ?

There is one sad sore in Canada from which we in Britain are happily free. When one party has ousted another party from office, the winners eject the holders of most, if not all, public offices, and put in friends of their own. I was told that the harbour master of a well-known port, advanced in years, with a family dependent on him, had been compelled to resign, from no fault, but simply to make room for some minion of the other side. In this autumn ('97) the Canadian papers had constant references

to "the axe" falling on some unhappy wight turned out of a public office because he happened to belong to the losing side. The result is an amount of bitter feeling most baneful to the public weal and to all concerned. The most violent personal attacks are made on the ministers of state, and they are often accused, possibly with justice, of thinking more of their own relations and friends than of the interests of the people at large. Such a concentration of bitter feeling as may sometimes be seen in the columns even of leading Canadian papers, is almost unknown in our own land. It is to be hoped that Canada, after a time, will not hesitate to follow the example of the mother country in respect to all public appointments, as the colony has already in so many other ways. Then, in any case, the horrible animosity of party feeling will be assuaged, and the public interest, instead of a desire for party gains, will perhaps be paramount and supreme.

CHAPTER II

CANADA AND CANADIAN RANCHES

THE "ranche" question must always be a subject of interest to Englishmen—at all events, to those of the upper classes who have sons. So many young men compete unsuccessfully for the army and other public appointments, that emigration is often the only resource left. A lady friend told me, at a ranche where I was staying, that she could mention five ranchemen who had failed in army examinations. Two or three had been pupils of her late husband or her brother-in-law, and appeared to be doing fairly well. At another ranche the owner told me that he had cleared the fences round Oxford far better than the examinations. On leaving Brasenose, he had gone to a horse-ranche at Idaho (U.S.A.) and after a time took up a ranche in British Columbia. It was my good fortune to visit him, and a nicer house, though built only of wood, or a lovelier spot, I have rarely seen. True, he apparently is not a rich man, but he is a J.P. and leads a life that many men might envy.

It became my duty about two years ago to look

into this "ranche" question, and the difficulty I experienced in obtaining accurate details has led me to write as I am doing, giving chiefly my own observations.

Among other articles which I read in the course of my inquiries I may mention two in *Longmans' Magazine*, entitled "The Rancheman," and "The Ranchewoman," each giving a most depressing account of English ranche life in the States, and no doubt with good reason.*

If the truth is to be told, I fear that, both in Canada and the States, the British farmer is regarded as a "tender-foot," a fool who is soon beguiled out of the little that he has ; fair prey for the land-sharks that abound in both countries. The young upper-class Englishman in the States, with no practical training, is not likely to be a match in any way for the 'cute Yankee. An amusing game which I saw two young Canadians playing illustrates, I am afraid, the experience of not a few of our countrymen.

It is called "Innocence abroad." The players leave their homes with money-bags full ; they shake the dice, and spend their dollars on various tempting objects named on the board ; soon both are almost

* See also an article in *The North American Review* for June 1896 and in *Scribner's Magazine* for September 1897, "At the Foot of the Rockies." These articles deal more with Canada, and the former (which I have not read) is said to put both sides of the question very fairly.

beggared, but he who has a little left at last is winner.

My experience, however, is confined to Canada where I had occasion to visit a ranche in British Columbia. What a business to get there! The cost of a ticket (first-class) from East Anglia to our Railway Station, Ashcroft, was about £27, and part of the way food had also to be bought. The emigrant landing at Quebec or Montreal must sleep at hotel or in the train, for four or five days; and hotel in Canada is not cheap. Some saving, however, may be effected by taking a second- or third-class passage on the steamer and using the colonist rates on the Canadian Pacific Railway, special through rates being allowed to immigrants. I doubt, however, whether the cost can be reduced below £20 or £25. From our station we had to go "up country" for two hundred and fifty miles! Here was another and no slight expense. The "stage" (as the stage coach is called) runs once or twice a week, taking three days to "do" about two hundred miles. The cost of this journey, one way only, was over £10, and to this amount must be added hotel bills *en route*. When the "stage" left us we had to cross the Fraser river in a canoe two and a half feet wide, and then to drive by mail cart forty miles more at a cost of five dollars each (£1 0s. 10d.).

A journey through the more remote districts by no means uninteresting. In the Cariboo coun-

through which we travelled, all manner of men and women may be met with in the stage and at the halting places. A builder from Toronto hammered away for half an hour on the currency, urging the issue of paper money, on a system similar to the French *assignats*; a wire-worker from San Francisco showed us what a gentleman a working man can be; a splendid Yorkshireman gave us his experiences as a miner, and in his bright fancies wandered once more with us amid the mountains of Westmoreland; a Chinese lady, married (we were told), and with a family, was our companion for some distance; an editor of a mining paper added to the general amusement; but an Irishman with a Scotch name, an Orangeman from Derry, now an alderman of a well-known city in British Columbia, surpassed us all, when, in speaking of the Scotch, he remarked that they keep the Sabbath and everything else they can lay their hands on!

At one place we noticed, just before a very steep ascent, twelve oxen yoked together and drawing a heavy waggon: one of these, of course, was lying down. Numerous "teamsters" (as they are called) were driving six or seven horses with one or two freight waggons behind them. They were taking their loads to the mining districts some hundred miles beyond. We in the "stage" always had four and sometimes six horses. One morning we started at 4 a.m.; always at a very early hour. One night we

did not reach our destination until nearly 11 p.m. At length we left the "stage"; yet there were nearly fifty miles still before us. The usual flat-bottomed boat or "scow," for crossing the Fraser, could not be had; a "dug-out" canoe was our only resource. The stream is always strong; we were ordered to lie in the bottom of the boat and be quite still. Who, with a lady in his charge, and a heavy coat containing tickets and cash, would not be a little nervous? In the middle of the stream a restless dog ran against me and nearly knocked my solar topee into the water! However, we were safely landed, and our luggage was at length securely lashed on the "rig" by the mail-man.¹

We drove near the banks of the Fraser river along heights from which it made one dizzy to look down, through forests at first, until we halted at the house of a half-breed for our midday meal. We had seen one person only, an Indian squaw, during our first twenty miles; now we met three half-breeds, a pure-bred Indian and his squaw, and a Mongolian with jet-dark hair on his olive face and a huge black pigtail behind. He was acting as cook and house servant. Later on we came to a more open country and saw herds of fine cattle, feeding on the "bunch" grass so highly valued for

¹ The luggage of all travellers in such districts should be reduced to a minimum, as the difficulties of transport are enormous.



its fattening qualities. These animals belong to different owners, but run together on the

unenclosed prairie or Government land during certain periods of the year. At



length, late in the afternoon, we saw our host standing near

SCENES AT DEER-
PARK RANCH,
BRITISH COLUMBIA.



his letter- or mail-box on the prairie, five miles from his home, awaiting our arrival. The luggage was shifted, then, after a drive amid boulders innumerable for two miles, and past three lakes, we descended a very steep hill, and at twilight arrived at our destination.

This ranche is situated in a deep valley near the Fraser river, with mountains rising abruptly on the other side of the stream, and high cliffs behind the house. The river-banks are so steep that cattle cannot use the water. This necessity is supplied by a stream which is fed throughout the year from the lakes above ; and after the melting of the snows on the mountain, the floods are carried off by a torrent-bed which, however, was dry when I saw it.

A good supply of water is essential, not only for the cattle and the horses, but also for irrigation. The soil in many parts is almost useless unless it can be irrigated. I saw splendid crops of onions, Indian corn, tomatoes, beans, and potatoes, all due in some degree to irrigation. At another ranche there were good crops of alfalfa, timothy, and clover ; at another three crops had been cut in one year, the result of irrigation ! One ranchman told me that he could irrigate two hundred acres ; but the cattle do better on the "bunch" grass than even on such crops as are raised in this way. Cattle-raising is supposed to be the chief source of income. All cattle are branded and then allowed to run

during the summer months with cattle belonging to other owners on the prairie; late in the season the ranchemen and cowboys assemble, drive the cattle into corrals, separate their own property for sale, or else to feed and keep alive during the winter months.

The preparations for this winter feeding are a very serious matter. The winter is often most severe and, if it is prolonged, the results may be disastrous. It seems impossible, with the high price of labour and materials, to erect shelters sufficient for any number of cattle; they therefore shelter in the woods or as best they can. But all ranchemen make as much hay as is possible. At one ranche one of the partners was seven weeks at the meadows attached to the ranche, twelve miles away, engaged all the time in harvesting the hay. He was assisted by one Englishman, three Chinese, two Indians. All these required to be fed and lodged, and their pay was at least one dollar per day. In the dry climate of Canada the hay is often cut and carried on the same day. Cut in the morning, it is turned over once and then carried. No attempt is made to thatch the stack, but it is sloped at the most acute angle possible. Labour is so scarce and dear that all extra expenses must be avoided; at one ranche the three sons of a rancheman, occupying a high official position, and held in the highest esteem, spent their holiday this year (1897), while

their tutor was away, in raking the hay together after it had been cut. Imagine boys returning from Eton or Harrow being required at once to assist all day in the hay- or wheat-field ! Yet why should they not ? At one of the houses where I spent the night on our way up and down, the host was an old Eton boy ; his store was apparently a thriving concern, and he is a gentleman in appearance as well as, apparently, in character. I had the pleasure of thanking him at three o'clock in the morning for his kindness to me when unwell, and curiously enough at the same place and about the same hour a stranger thanked me for a sermon which I had preached three weeks before one hundred and fifty miles away !

The question whether these ranches pay, depends of course upon a combination of circumstances. They have their "ups and downs" (as a Scotchman said to me) just as much as the Australian farmer has his—droughts, involving, it may be, large losses. In 1896 there was a long drought in one district, followed by a winter of unusual length ; the mortality among the cattle was very great. They had become so weak that they could scarcely eat the hay that was offered them, and many ranchmen had not enough hay to carry their cattle through the winter. On the other hand, it is said that a good season or two will soon set them up again. But the rates of interest on land in

Canada are so high as to forbid much profit (as it seems to me) in almost any case. Most ranchmen, I suspect, begin on borrowed money, and in British Columbia often pay, I am assured, nine to ten per cent. Winnipeg, the chief city of Manitoba, is full of loan societies, and these secure six to eight per cent. from the settler who needs (as almost all new settlers are sure to need) "accommodation."

The hard Manitoban wheat (No. 1), said to be the best in the world, sells usually off the land at a price varying from sixty-five to seventy-five cents per bushel, *i.e.* about twenty-five shillings per quarter. Will this price recoup interest on money borrowed at seven or eight per cent.? Money is, I am informed, still more dear in British Columbia, and ten per cent. interest is enough to knock off all profit.

Some ranchmen are fond of having a large "band" of horses. These are very interesting to watch, but by universal consent unprofitable (in British Columbia) to breed in large numbers. A few horses are a necessity, and a good ranchman knows how to lasso a horse as well as a cow, and how to drive him into a corral. But there is no demand for the small horses bred on the prairie. Even those bred in special districts do not fetch high prices. A considerable number are now sent to Liverpool and London from the horse-breeding districts, and fetch remunerative prices. Even the horses used in the waggon or "rig," are generally

turned out loose. Good stable accommodation is expensive and rare : grooms and stablemen are out of the question.

When the ranchman wants a horse, he must usually get most of the horses in. Perhaps they are some miles away. He must go after them, drive them into the corral, then select the one he wants. A dog is often serviceable in bringing the horses in, and it is amusing to watch how a horse, whose heels have been bitten, runs backwards and tries to return the bite with interest. One wilful or cunning horse will often ruin a "band," and had better be fetlocked, or got rid of in some fashion. These horses have usually been bred on the ranche. I was shown one which had swum two rivers in returning of its own accord to its "native" air. They are sometimes turned loose at a distance from home, in the hope that they will return in due course.

At one ranche where I was staying, a fortnight had elapsed since a horse had been turned loose, fifteen miles away ; and it had not returned. The "band" was numbered day after day, yet one was still missing. An Indian was offered a dollar if he would find and bring him home. This work of tracking is just what the Indian loves : he galloped off on his own horse, yet did not win the dollar. The ranchman then set out himself, and at length discovered his horse, duly branded, running with the horse of a half-breed. Driving him into the corral,

he secured, saddled, and rode him home. But he and his first horse had done forty miles before he returned, and a long day had been spent in recovering a horse at a period when time was very precious.

These Indians are quite a feature of ranche life. There are certain Reserves assigned to them, and they are cared for more by others than apparently they care for themselves. An Indian village was close to a ranche where I was privileged to be a guest, and I heard many details respecting them in all parts of British Columbia.

Drink appears to be the curse which is steadily destroying them. In the summer they hunt and fish, and earn money by work of all kinds ; in winter they exist on what they have earned : yet they are said to be most improvident. The men and women sometimes earn as much as a dollar a day (4s. 2d.), or more, and in addition get good meals, at hay-making or potato-lifting ; but the money is soon gone.

It is said that where they can be kept from contact with the whites, their numbers increase ; otherwise they dwindle away. Efforts for their welfare have been made for many years by various bodies of Christians.

I met two Roman Catholic priests one evening at a small inn in a remote country district. Curiously enough, I mistook them for Methodist ministers ! Afterwards I learnt that one was a bishop, and that they were paying a special visit to the Indians of

the Reserve not far away. I was assured that they exercise great influence (often for good) over these people. Trinkets blessed by the Pope were sold for high prices, and brought in a good round sum. Cards ensuring a certain admission to a better world if death should come within a certain time, were five dollars each; after the expiration of the time, five dollars more were needed. These statements were made to me as "proven facts": but Protestant spite is sometimes as bad as Catholic credulity. In any case the Indian problem is a very sad one, and a disgrace to our so-called civilisation.

It must not be supposed that the rancheman's life is all toil. If he is to have any chance of success he must be an early riser, an industrious and an all-round man. But if he is a good shot, he will have his opportunities for sport. I saw numerous flocks of wild ducks again and again, once a flock of wild geese, and grouse on more than one occasion. A rancheman told me that he had shot two hundred and fifty brace of grouse in 1895. No wonder that the numbers are diminishing, and that in one district a close season has been decreed!

Wild sheep were seen on the mountains close to one ranche where I was staying, and deer were said to be numerous; but in summer they hide in the woods. On one occasion, when waiting for the mail-cart, our rancheman went into a wood and at

once brought down an owl. An eagle-owl, he called it; a splendid bird, finer than any specimens in the Natural History Museum at Victoria, British Columbia.

The coyotes, or prairie-wolves, are very destructive, and play havoc with fowls if they wander far from house and home. At one ranche which I visited, a packs of hounds had been kept for the purpose of hunting them; but the low price of all agricultural produce forbids the prudent rancheman from indulging in such pleasures at the present time.

In some parts, when the harvest is over, there are races, very simple and friendly in character. At those to which my friends were going, there were usually about forty whites and a hundred Indians; the subscription was five dollars (£1 0s. 10d.), the entrance fee for each race two dollars (8s. 4d.). Some races are reserved exclusively for Indians. It was amusing to learn that an archdeacon, held in universal respect, was hoping to attend, if only he could "get a lift." A good horseman himself, beloved by all alike, why should he not be present? Would not his cheerful presence and acknowledged high character put some check upon practices which often disgrace our British races?

There is one feature of Canadian ranche life that must not in any way be overlooked. I am not referring to the isolation, to an elderly man almost appalling, if not so to the young and vigorous, nor

to the difficulty of obtaining assistance in the case of illness or accident. The beauty of the Canadian sky and the dryness of the air give an elasticity to the spirits which enable men to hope on under almost hopeless circumstances. But the high price of labour is the crowning obstacle to all agricultural profit. Canada just now is the paradise of the working man, certainly not of the farmers or ranchemen. A "locomotive engineer" (our "engine driver") can earn nearly £300 per annum. We travellers worked out the wages of our stage drivers, and we agreed that, with allowances, they amount to over £400 per annum for each man. A woman, for a day's ordinary work at Winnipeg, expects a dollar and a half (6s. 3d.), besides her food; and such women cannot be secured in remote districts at any price.

Labourers who are wanted to assist in the Manitoban wheat harvest require three or three and a half dollars per day, besides board and lodging—say fifteen shillings per day; an Essex labourer would be content with five shillings!

Miners earn three dollars or more per day. I watched a large field of potatoes being "lifted" and carted away. The foreman, an intelligent Irishman, received about £120 per annum (not a whit too much for his merits), the Chinaman employed as outdoor labourer earned twenty (or twenty-five) dollars per month, besides food and lodging (at least £60 per

annum); six Indians, men and women, were to have a dollar per day, besides three good meals. They are not content with bread, cheese, and beer; they must have meat, potatoes, tea, and perhaps pastry besides. The ground had been heavily manured, cleaned and irrigated; the crop was excellent, and the selling price was £3 2s. 6d. per ton. Would that price pay?

The result of these high prices of labour is that the Chinese have been flocking into British Columbia, and now the Japs are following suit. The Chinaman is so versatile that he can do, or is prepared to learn, almost anything: as a ranchman said to me, "A Chinaman will do anything when he is hard up!" He is the universal cook in British Columbia. At the wayside resting place in remote country districts, or in the best houses of Vancouver or Victoria, the Chinaman is cook, often earning from twenty to forty dollars per month, besides receiving board, lodgings, and waste. He is, too, the gardener of the Province; wherever you see a good kitchen garden, be assured that "John" is not far away. He milks the cows, washes and irons the clothes, keeps the inside of *your* house (not his own) tolerably clean—in fact, will and can do almost anything as long as he is paid. The Japs too are coming in, and these gentlemanly little men are now often found in hotels and houses; but they are not as versatile as their Oriental neighbours.

This influx of Orientals has alarmed the labouring class, and a tax of fifty dollars has already been placed on every Chinaman when he lands. This tax is said to be usually paid by one of his countrymen already resident, to whom the new-comer works out the debt before he seeks employment elsewhere. Charges of all kinds are brought against the Chinese, and there is an evident intention on the part of not a few to raise the tax from fifty to five hundred dollars, if only they can carry their point ; and they think they can. The chief charges are that they don't assimilate with their neighbours, and, moreover, send their savings away. But the real objection to their presence is, that by their industry and skill they reduce the price of labour. The working man does not like their competition. The Japs, too, are to be excluded because they are "foreign labour." Why not, then, exclude the "darkies" who do the work so well in the Pullman cars ?

If, however, these alien exclusion laws are carried further, and labour becomes still more expensive, what are ranchemen and Western farmers to do ? Most of them employ a Chinaman now. If these Orientals are henceforth refused admission, labour will be dearer than ever. This is a point which no man with any capital to lose should overlook.

Yet fathers must find some employment for their sons. Not a few lads pine for open-air employment, and long for the freedom of a Canadian ranche.

What, then, should a parent do when no opening elsewhere presents itself? The lad (in my opinion) should be sent to some such place as the Colonial College at Hollesley Bay, in Suffolk, where he may learn all the crafts essential to success as a colonist. He must learn to ride, shoot, plough, dig, to use an axe, a plane, a hammer and saw ; to milk a cow ; to kill and flay an ox ; to shoe a horse ; to plant potatoes ; in short, he must learn the thousand and one things needed when a man stands almost, if not quite, alone. He must learn, too, to keep (like the Scotchman) what little siller he has in his pocket, and to shun fifteen-cent cigars and all the seductions of saloons. Some knowledge of gardening and of pruning trees may also prove very useful, and should certainly be acquired if opportunity offers. After a year or two at Hollesley Bay, the lad might be sent to Canada.

But to whom should he be sent? He must go of course as a pupil at first. Archdeacon Small of Lytton, British Columbia, knows a very large area of country, and almost every person in it ; so does the Hon. C. F. Cornwall (Judge Cornwall) of Ashcroft, British Columbia ; and both would give sound and careful advice. Both are English born, yet have lived many years in Canada.

For a steady, industrious lad, more fond of gardening than farm work, the western coast is perhaps more suitable. The climate is milder and more

humid. Canon Padden, of Victoria, British Columbia, is constantly sailing among the islands of the western coast, and visiting the various settlements, and he will gladly answer any inquiries. But no one should think of coming, he says, whose character is shady, or who is not industrious. Archdeacon Scriven, of Victoria, British Columbia, is thoroughly acquainted with Vancouver Island, riding throughout the island at frequent intervals, and is well able to give useful hints.

Let me add a word of warning to the ladies. In one of the official reports issued by the Canadian Agricultural Department, complaint is made that half the men who take the ranches are bachelors, and that they are absent far too often from work. Without a question, ladies of the useful sort are very much needed in Canada. But if they go, preparation is necessary in their case as much as with the men. Canadians have remarked to me that no British girl knows how to bake bread ; and yet no knowledge is more necessary.

Chinese servants are already so costly that many people cannot employ them, and so do all the housework themselves. Yet, in spite of all the rough work which must be done by both men and women in remote districts, not a few retain all the charms of gentle birth and good breeding. Let ladies, then, who are likely to go to Canada, avail themselves of the opportunities offered by our splendid Technical

Schools. Let them learn to milk, make butter, bake cook, and to master the mysteries of laundry work.

Such practical knowledge they will find not only to be power, but also happiness. They will soon see the truth of the good old saying, "Where there's no sin, there's no shame."

CHAPTER III

THE NORTH PACIFIC

WHAT a sight for a stranger when one of the *Empress* steamers is about to leave Vancouver harbour for the Far East! The Chinese population of the city is said to be nearly three thousand, and no small proportion of them is on the wharf an hour or two before the departure of the steamer. It is a common complaint against the Chinese that they never settle in Canada, that they send their savings away, and go away themselves after a time. Many Chinese, indeed, return to China after three years' absence; some come back for another three years or more. Thus, every *Empress*, when bound for the "Celestial" country, carries a goodly number,¹ and their friends (as well as many Japanese) are on the wharf, bidding the retreating ones farewell. Their appearance is certainly not prepossessing.

John Chinaman, when he pays for his own food, is a *very* careful man; when he can feast at the expense of some one else, his appearance soon changes for the better.

¹ The captain informed me that Chinese from all parts of Canada and the United States travel by the *Empress* steamers.

Among those who came to bid us good-bye, I noticed one Chinaman with "mutton chop" whiskers, and a European pair of pantaloons. He evidently was an "old hand." The respect with which he was treated seemed to indicate that he held a high position among his countrymen. He probably had advanced money in many cases, and been that friend in need who is the friend indeed!

The Blue Peter is flying, but we do not cast off our moorings until the mails and all the luggage from the Transcontinental train are on board. We turn a "longing, lingering look" towards Mount Baker, thirteen thousand feet high, crowned at all seasons with eternal snow. Opposite, on the other side of the river, is the Indian Reserve; behind the Reserve, a mountain wall rises like a natural bulwark; in the salt water around us large, brightly coloured jelly-fish, and other marine treasures, are floating, and the lovers of marine life (it is said) are well rewarded by searching the shores at low tide.

We are off! Our vessel is soon in the "Narrows." Yet the water is so deep that in one part we pass within a stone's throw of the land. We make our way amid a sea of islands, and in the Gulf of Georgia, until, after six hours' steaming, we stop to take up passengers from Victoria, the chief town of Vancouver Island. Then, after an hour's delay, we start in real earnest for the Pacific.

As soon as we are off, we are summoned to a

meal! The attention to creature-comforts in these steamers is quite a feature of the times, and competing companies contend with each other in this respect as well as in size and speed of their vessels. Nothing can surpass the skill and attention devoted to all the convenience and enjoyment of the passengers in these "Empress" steamers. The cooks, I believe, are Chinese; the waiters and cabin-men are Chinese, and they do their work (if kept up to the mark) as well as men can do. The dress of the waiters is a long butcher-blue smock or over-all, with white cuffs reaching nearly up to the elbow. Each one wears a small cap, that looks as if it were made of horsehair, with a red knob in the centre; white socks, and black Chinese shoes. Their movements are quick and noiseless: they seem to vie with each other as to who shall be most active. But we must not forget that there are British officers behind them, that they are well paid, and no doubt fully conscious that any neglect of duty would involve dismissal.

We are soon, however, in mid-ocean, running westward towards the Aleutian Isles. The gloomy-looking waters remind one of Disraeli's "melancholy ocean"; and the first part of our passage is not very exhilarating. Winter time is at hand—not a sail is to be seen; the sun rarely shows his face; the stars are not those of the South Pacific. Most of the passengers are out of sorts. But time works

wonders ; there will be a change for the better before we have traversed half our course. We have four thousand three hundred miles to cover before we reach our goal.

Vancouver is on the 49th parallel of latitude ; Yokohama lies at 35° 20' north. By taking a northern course, where the lines of longitude converge, the distance across the ocean is lessened, and time is saved. After seven days' sailing, we suddenly discover sea-weed ; a green plover, exhausted, falls on our deck ; land is evidently not far off. We are nearing the Aleutian Isles : from the bridge the cliffs of Atkha Island, nineteen hundred feet high, are sometimes seen, and some of the keener-sighted ones on the deck think that they also see land. These islands look on the map as if they were useful in protecting travellers on the Pacific from the icebergs which often make the Atlantic voyage on the most northern route dangerous. They are said to be almost uninhabited, except by the blue foxes, whose pelts have a certain commercial value. To-day (October 22nd) we are south of Kamskatka.¹ Soon we go on to the Kurile Islands, and when we reach the 150th degree from Greenwich, within two days of Japan, the influence of the warm current will be felt, and wraps and rugs will be discarded. These Kurile Islands formerly belonged to Russia,

¹ In the chart of the North Pacific issued by the Navy Department, United States, the spelling is Kamchatka.

but are now attached to Japan, having been exchanged for Saghalien¹ in 1875.

Efforts have been made by the Japanese to colonise the islands, but with indifferent success. A Russian captain who is on board (a martyr to rheumatism ; and no wonder, for he spent two years on one of the Aleutian Islands !) tells us that the Russians are making a success of Saghalien ; the reason we divined to be that convict labour is employed.

The various names given by the sailors to the "seas" and waves are quite a curiosity. It is agreed that there are four kinds of sea waves :² (1) Wind-waves, when the wind drives the waters down in one direction, so that there is a corresponding elevation in another. Billows raised in this way in open ocean are sometimes forty feet, or even more, from trough to crest. (2) A storm-wave is the wave connected with a cyclone ; it accompanies the hurricane as it travels onward, oval in form, or like a soup-plate turned upside down. These storm-waves sometimes inundate low-lying districts (the mouth of the Hoogley, for example), and destroy thousands of lives at one fell swoop. (3) Earthquake-waves are caused by volcanic action. The awful injury occasioned by the great wave at the eruption of Thrakatau in the narrow Sunda Strait in August

¹ The name is Sakhalien in the United States chart of the North Pacific Ocean.

² See Lecky, "Wrinkles on Navigation."

1883 is a terrible illustration. (4) Tidal-waves are caused by the joint attraction of both sun and moon. But sailors also speak of a chopping,¹ *i.e.* a short or cross sea. One of our officers ascribed the tossing of our vessel to a "following sea,"—that is, a sea following the direction of our ship. If the ship were turned round and faced such a sea, it would become a "head sea." There are also a broken or irregular sea, or ground swell; a long, rolling sea, or rough; a smooth and heavy sea, and so on.

As we hasten westward, sometimes at sixteen or seventeen knots an hour, our watches require alteration day after day. The sun is the time-keeper for all the world, and we must follow his lead. His arrival at each meridian on the earth's surface is the hour of noon for every place on that meridian. The sailor especially reckons his time in this way. He considers it noon as soon as the sun is "up," *i.e.* on his meridian. When he is going westward, the sun follows and overtakes him, and some time must be dropped out. On our arrival at the meridian of 180° west, the 18th day of the month disappeared. Monday died on Sunday night.

By this device, instead of being twelve hours behind Greenwich, we became twelve hours ahead.

¹ Some prefer "choppy," from the "chops," of the English Channel and the "choppy" waves there. I have written the word as in the Weather Report issued by the Navy Department Bureau of Navigation, U.S.A.

We have already used twelve hours in the lengthened days, and now borrow twelve more to expend on our way back to the starting point. If, however, we were returning by the same route, on arriving at the meridian 180° travelling eastward, "we should count one day twice over! As the sailor goes eastward he shortens his day; as he goes westward, he lengthens it, in exact proportion to the difference of longitude made good, the constant rate in all latitudes being one hour for every fifteen degrees of his advance."¹

Fire drill on one of these steamers is a pleasant relief to the tedium of our routine life. The bell is rung, and in a moment, from all quarters, rush Chinamen, officers, seamen, and boys. The cooks of the steerage, with a yellow band round their blue dress, are required to attend, as well as every man that can be spared. The fire-buckets are brought out; every one takes his appointed place; the boats, twelve in number (a few as large as the ships of earlier ages) are let down some little distance, and the tackle is carefully examined. John Chinaman, away from his beloved fire, shivers in the cold wind, and is right glad when his buckets are put back, and he can go again under cover, and about his ordinary work.

Another day, when the weather was fine, but something like a gale was blowing, the sails were

¹ Lecky, "Wrinkles on Navigation."

unfurled, and we were driven on by wind and steam. Even if the sails are of no service while the engines are at work, it is necessary to unfurl and hoist them, otherwise they become damp and mouldy. The tackle, too, might be out of order. Landsmen may well watch this process of making and shortening sail, if only to gain some idea of the dangers to which seamen are exposed. If the task in a fresh breeze seems perilous, what must it be in a gale? One of the great liners conveying my daughter to Hong Kong encountered a tempest last March (1897) in the Bay of Biscay; the captain, afraid of being driven on shore, steamed straight against the storm towards the Atlantic; the ship was saved, but seven seamen had legs, arms, or collar-bones broken.

The Sunday service is quite a feature of our ship (*Empress of India*). The hymns and chants are practised beforehand, so that nothing is left to chance. At the appointed hour most of the sailors march in: the passengers, too, almost all attend. Then the captain enters and reads the service reverently and well. If a clergyman is on board, he is asked to take part and to give an address; but the address must not exceed ten minutes. The men are wanted elsewhere; the saloon too is wanted. Happy is the man who can use his ten minutes well! We have, too, had a lecture on "Bees and Bee Keeping"; a concert, which brought about £10 to the Naval Charities; *Tableaux vivants*; and to-day (October

23rd), as the weather is fine, and we are in the warm "Japan current," deck sports, with the usual spoon-and-potato contest, have been held.

But we are nearing Japan. The weather is warmer, the sun is out, and every one is brisk and well. We shall soon be in the "Tuscarora Deep," where the water is said to be as deep as in any part of the world.¹ The name is taken from the United States survey steamer *Tuscarora*, so says an American friend; but a British officer of the *Empress* adds that a still deeper part has been discovered by our navy near the South Sea Islands, about 20° south of the Equator, and 176° west of Greenwich.

We expect to-morrow morning to sight land, the holy island of Kinkwa-zan, off the coast of Nippon² Island, and on the following morning to arrive at Yokohama. Our arrival there will bring a not unpleasant voyage to an end.

¹ The depth marked on the chart is close on 4,700 fathoms, but a depth of 5,200 fathoms, the mean of three soundings, has recently been reached by the officers and men of the Royal Navy at 20° south of the equator, and 176° west of Greenwich. The point is not what is the greatest depth of the ocean, but the greatest depth sounded.

² Sometimes spelt Nipon; called also the island of Bondo.

CHAPTER IV

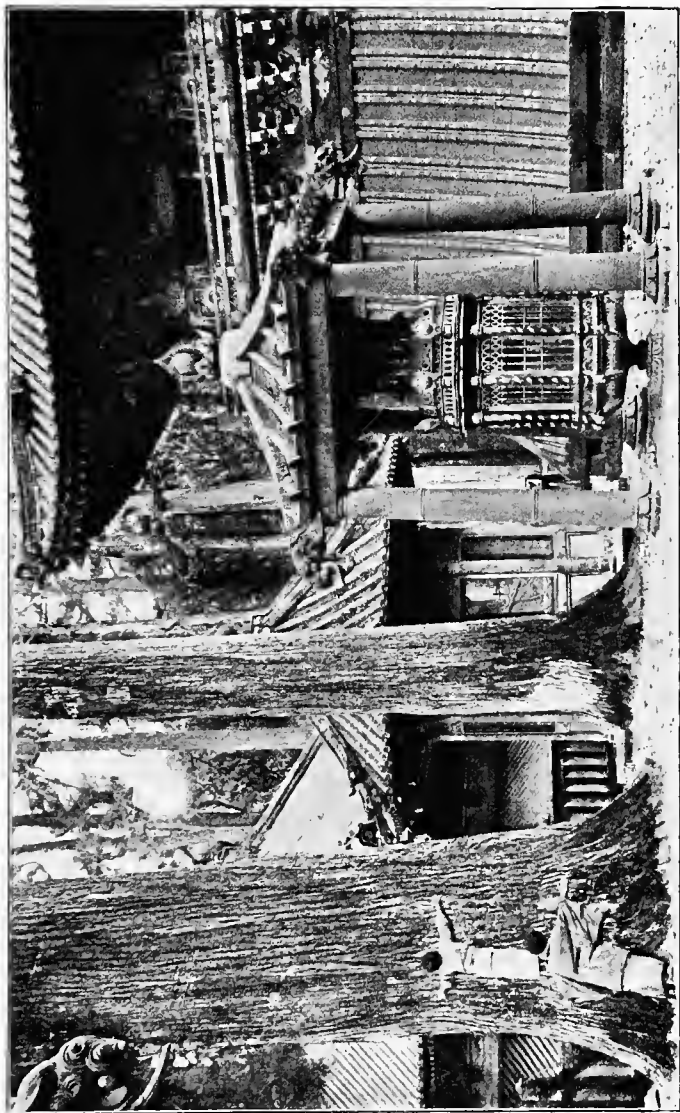
JAPAN

WHO that has spent twelve days on the dull North Pacific does not feel a thrill of joy when he enters the harbour of Yokohama? We arrived about 5.30 a.m. ; and a more perfect morning could not be imagined. The air was crisp, but not cold ; the sun was bright, but not dazzling. Fuji, the sacred mountain, formerly forbidden ground to any but the baser sex, smiled serenely upon us, welcoming all weary ones alike. The waters around, far and wide, were alive with fishing-boats, some just appearing on the waters, others gliding gracefully under sail ; while ships of all sizes, some men-of-war, some large ocean steamers, reposed peacefully not far away. We were soon surrounded by craft of all kinds ; the sampans, impelled with marvellous skill by dark-haired, sun-tanned, half-naked natives, were a very lively feature of a charming scene.

What were my first impressions? If I am to tell the truth, I am bound to say that my first thought was that the Japanese are a race of pigmies ! The

average height of the men is probably about five feet four and a half inches, and the contrast, at first, between the tall, well-fed, and often coarse European and the Jap, is very striking. In some parts of the country, however, many tall men may be noticed, and in their favourite wooden clogs they appear very tall. This first impression of their small size wears off after a time, and old residents are said to sympathise with the opinion which the Japanese entertain of Europeans, that they are decidedly coarse! The people generally regard us as a set of huge, hairy, red-haired barbarians with green eyes.¹ At the famous Chrysanthemum Show held at Dango-Zaka, not far from Tokyo, I noticed that Commodore Perry, the American admiral who in 1853 compelled Japan to open some of her ports, was represented as a very hairy man, and his hair in tint a decided red. The sailor who supported him was a Rufus also; both had green eyes, and Miss Bacon, in her "Japanese Girls and Women," remarks that "foreigners who have resided long in the country, see, to their own surprise, that their own countrywomen look ungainly, fierce, aggressive and awkward, among the small, mild, shrinking and graceful Japanese ladies." I dare not endorse such a statement; but is it not well

¹ "Green-eyed monsters with red hair like Shojo (apish mythological beings, delighting in drunkenness) and with noses like Tengu (long-nosed mythological beings) wearing clothes of absurd forms and colours."—Hearn's "Kokoro," p. 179.



VIEW OF TEMPLE OF IEYASU AT NIKKO, SHOWING CRYPTOMERIA-TREE AND BRONZE LANTERN, JAPAN.

that we should sometimes see ourselves as others see us?

Another early impression, that has not yet faded, was occasioned by a meeting which I happened to witness (on the first day of my arrival) of two elderly Japanese ladies in a private house. As a matter of course they had removed clogs or straw sandals. One lady arrived in a jinrikisha (a light carriage on two wheels, drawn by a runner) and was met on the raised floor of the house by her friend. Both sat in Japanese fashion on their legs and feet; they then proceeded to bow three or four times to each other until their heads touched the ground and each other. This process no doubt represented great regard, corresponding to our shaking of hands. But what would our ladies say about the pain in their legs and back? One needs an early training to become accomplished in Japanese politeness.

Another impression made on my first day that is still abiding, is the sight of a patient bull drawing (dragging, perhaps I should say) a load of stones up a steep hill. Our farmers evidently have something to learn about the use of their cattle; I have seen any number of bulls in different parts of the country drawing light waggons or carrying loads; I have not noticed one cow! The laws of Buddha, be it remembered, forbid the taking of life in any form: The strict Buddhist priest will not touch even fish. Cows are not killed or milked (as a

general rule). Milk, indeed, is almost unknown to the Japanese as a people.¹

But the gentlemen—I mean of course the bulls—are expected to work, and, being of a mild disposition, are found to be very useful in carrying or drawing heavy loads. They are usually shod with rice-straw sandals, to protect their feet. What was my last impression? As we left the harbour of Nagasaki on our way to China, I exclaimed, “Japan is the most beautiful country in the world!” What can be compared to it? Switzerland has its Lake Lucerne and its mountains covered with eternal snows. British Columbia has its swift rivers, its deep valleys and mountain heights, its wild cañons and fiords, its stately trees and ruddy fruits; but where is there anything to equal the exquisite verdure of the mountain side at Nikko, Miyanoshita, and a hundred other places? Where else does the maple, or any other tree, display such bright-red leaves just as the winter is beginning? Where is another Inland Sea or a harbour surrounded by such mountains of exquisite beauty as Nagasaki? Even as you leave, fresh beauties break upon the almost sated mind: boats with lighted lanterns dance upon the waters and defy the darkness of the night. “Don’t use the word *kekko*” (beautiful, magnificent, superb) “before you have seen Nikko!” says a well-

¹ The Japanese doctors in the cities are now prescribing so many “go” (half a pint) per day to their patients.

known Japanese proverb, and Nikko, combining natural beauties, mountain, river, lake, waterfalls, and trees, with art in its most perfect form, is undoubtedly one of the most glorious regions in the world. The name "Nikko" does not represent a place so much as a district. Here are Shinto and Buddhist shrines, utterly different from all our Western ideas, yet resplendent with beauty and the exercise of the highest art. Here are avenues of cryptomerias equal to anything in Canada or the States. In this district too is Lake Chuzenji, four thousand three hundred and seventy-five feet above the sea, surrounded by waving woods, and so deep that it is said not to have been fathomed in some parts. Above it rises the Nantaizan Mountain, eight thousand one hundred and fifty feet high, like a pyramid in shape, the resort of countless pilgrims in autumn time.

No one can say that he has seen earth's best beauties unless he has visited Japan. November is probably the best of all months for a visit. The weather, as a rule, is settled; the chrysanthemum and maple are in their brightest form, and the cold of winter has not come.

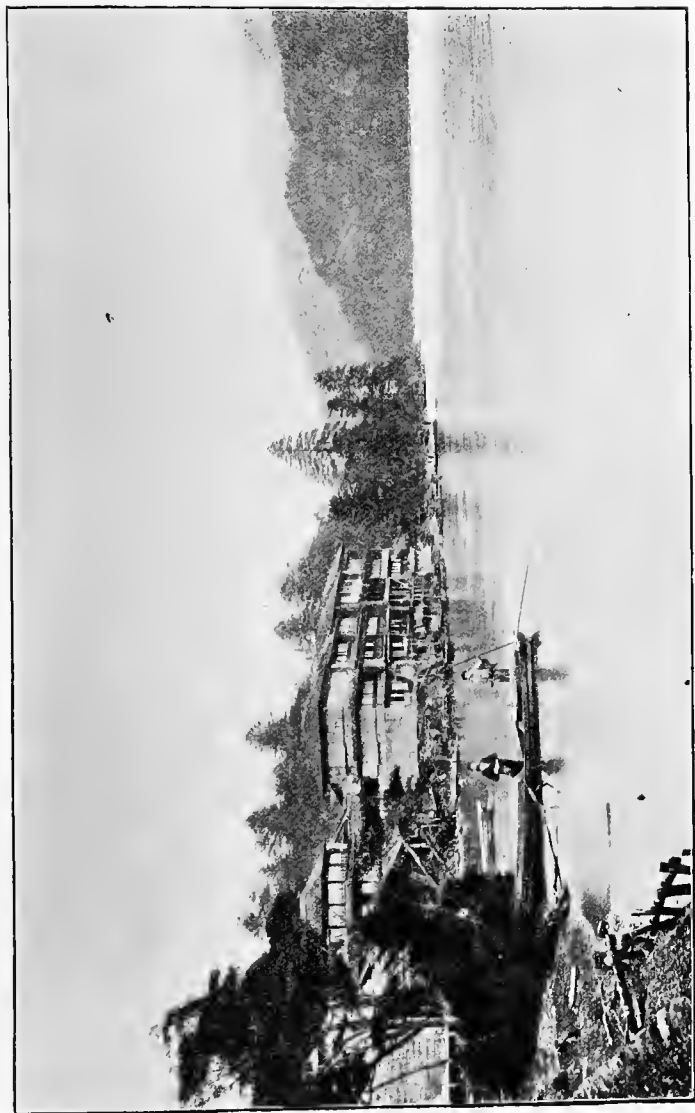
But if Japan is beautiful, it is also volcanic, and earthquakes are unfortunately far too frequent. There are fifty-one active volcanoes in Japan, and it is calculated that five hundred shocks are felt every year. All ships making for Yokohama look for Mihara, a volcano on Vries Island, two thousand

five hundred feet high, from whose summit smoke perpetually issues.

The Kurile Islands, which ships pass on the voyage from Vancouver, receive their name from a Russian word, signifying "to smoke." Many smoking volcanoes exist on them. The legends connected with those in Japan are very numerous. One asserts that in the year 286 B.C. the earth opened, and Lake Biwa, thirty-six miles long, and in some parts twelve miles broad¹ (the largest lake in Japan), was formed, and at the same time Fuji arose. The torrents of lava that have flowed down from Fuji on different occasions (say the editors of Murray's famous handbook) must have been enormous; one of these streams extends fifteen miles in a direct line from the summit. But most of the lava has long since been covered up by the deep deposits of ashes and scoriae.

Japan has the volcano Aso-San in the southern Island, with the largest crater in the world; the diameter is from ten to fourteen miles. The damage often done by these volcanoes, and by earthquakes, is incalculable. So late as 1891 an earthquake occurred which was felt over an area as large as England. A line of houses along a distance of nineteen miles from Nagoya to Gifu was levelled. Large brick buildings in Nagoya and Osaka, seventy-five miles from the seat of

¹ The area is about the same as that of the Lake of Geneva.



THE TEA HOUSE AT CHUZENJI LAKE AT NIKKO.

maximum disturbance, became a heap of ruins. Travellers to Kyoto will probably have the place pointed out where the bridge over the Narara-gawa gave way, the embankments having sunk so that the rails were left suspended in mid air. Ten miles north of Gifu, mud geysers appeared, and many houses sank out of sight.¹ It is said that altogether ten thousand persons lost their lives, twenty thousand were injured, and a hundred and twenty-eight thousand houses were destroyed.

Persons who have lived any time in Japan dread these shocks for more reasons than one. Lamps are thrown down, fire is scattered where everything burns rapidly, and most disastrous consequences often follow.

Floods and tidal waves are also at times very destructive. Even after two or three days' heavy rain, a large part of the country seems to be under water. During the floods of 1885 a hundred and forty-six bridges were carried away in Osaka. This city, containing (according to Murray) more than four hundred thousand inhabitants, reminds one of Rotterdam, or (as some think) of Venice. But the comparison is no compliment to either city! The floods of 1889 in the Valley of the Totsu-gawa, lower down called Kumano-gawa, are said to have

¹ See Murray, under Gifu, and Professor Milne, F.R.S., "Earthquakes," in the International Scientific Series, and "Transactions of the Seismological Society of Japan," vol. ix., Part II.

been almost as destructive as the great Gifu earthquake.

Tidal waves often do immense damage. Commodore Perry, in the treaty with Japan, arranged that Shimoda should be an open port for American shipping, and here the American minister resided for a time. But in 1859 an earthquake and a huge tidal wave injured the harbour to such a degree that large ships cannot enter; it also overwhelmed the town. A lady resident tells me that the last terrible event, the tidal wave on the east coast above Sendai, in June 1896, has left memories of horror not soon to be forgotten.

Japan is also the land of contrasts, or, as Mr. Chamberlain in "Things Japanese," expresses the matter, of "topsy-turvydom." It is strange to meet three Japanese almost at one time, the first dressed like an ordinary European; the second wearing a "billy-cock" hat, Japanese clothes, but European boots or shoes; the third with no cover to his head save straight black hair, with Japanese clothes, and clogs three inches high, or rice-straw sandals. But stranger still are the blackened mouths of the married women. No nation probably has better teeth than the Japanese. Their diet of rice and fish, their abstinence too, from meat and sweets (compared with Europeans), tend to lessen that wear and tear which employ, yet perplex, our very best dentists. We cleanse and whiten what teeth we have to the

best of our ability. In Japan most women, as soon as they are married, blacken them, for some mysterious reason. The effect (for these women almost always have their mouths open) is often ludicrous. We keep what hair we can on our heads as long as possible; the shaven heads of their old men (and also of the babies) are enough to excite compassion. Our non-abstainers drink wine after, rather than before, dinner. The Japanese take their *saké* (rice-brandy, looking like weak sherry) before they begin to eat. Their books begin at the end, and end at our beginning. The "foot notes" are printed at the top of the page, not at the bottom. An old cat with us is an unpleasant epithet; but the singing girls of Japan, when very attractive, are as a compliment called cats! There is a superstition that cats (especially those with long tails) have the power of bewitching men, and so these singing girls, bewitching their admirers by their artful, magic ways, are often called "cats." Babies are carried on the backs of their mothers, sisters, and even brothers; not like ours, in the arms. As they look upward they seem very happy, bright little creatures; but some trace the weak sight, so common in Japan, to this exposure to the sun in their earliest infancy.¹

¹ The miserable European caps, with their narrow brims, so popular in Japan, are no protection for the eyes against the blazing sun; the bad oil in their lamps may be another cause of weak sight.

A horse in the stable is placed in just the reverse way to ours. His head is where we think his tail should be! He is fed from a tub near the entrance. The mane is made to hang on the left side, not the right side, as with us; but a Japanese mounts his horse on the right side, and all parts of the harness are fastened on the right side. The women never cover their heads, and the sight of my wife's white straw hat seemed to astonish and amuse the men, women, and children, in many parts of Japan, much more than my own solar topee. We like a soft or substantial pillow. The Japanese use a pillow of singular shape—a stuffed cushion of wood! Great care is bestowed by the younger women on their hair; the barber's aid is frequently invoked, and the elaborate headgear would be disarranged by the use of such a pillow as ours! Boats are hauled on the beach just in the opposite way to ours, stern first, not last. Mourning is a matter of much account, as it is among other nations who derive their religion even indirectly from the Chinese. Special mourning garments must be worn, and animal food must not be taken. Visits must be paid at appointed times to the grave of the deceased; but white mourning garments are used when we should use black.

Let me add one or two more contrasts: they never shake hands, but bow profoundly and gracefully; one bow rarely suffices! And in entering a house

they don't remove their hats as we do, but their clogs or sandals. A Japanese floor is rubbed so carefully that in course of time it becomes like polished oak, and deserves the respect paid to it by all Japanese, as well as by all who desire their esteem. All woodwork, as a rule, is wiped once or twice daily with the water which has been used in the bath, no longer hot, but warm. No soap is used, but the water (they say) is rather greasy ! As any number of persons often use the same water, their idea that the water is rather greasy may be accepted as correct !

We regard foxes as "vermin," an enemy of game birds and fowls, fair objects of the chase ; but in Japan the fox possesses (as not a few believe) supernatural powers. A lovely maiden who had bewitched the Mikado, the Emperor of Japan (descendant of the Sun Goddess, as the mass of the people believe), was driven by the influence of the court magician from the imperial presence, whereupon she flew away to the moor of Nasu, and there resumed her natural shape, that of a fox,¹ so says a famous Japanese legend. These demon foxes are supposed to enter into human beings like the evil spirits of Scripture. Doves with us typify all that is engaging, loving, charming, and peaceful, but in Japan they fly about the temples dedicated to Hachiman, the God of War ! They are supposed

¹ "Murray's Guide," p. 196.

to carry his messages—"strange messengers from the God of War."¹

We use knives and forks at our meals; the Japanese are content with chopsticks. Let any one who thinks himself clever with his fingers try to lift an egg with chopsticks, and to keep it up!

Decent people among us use soap and water, when necessary: bran-bags are used in Japan. A handful of bran, sewn into a small linen bag, is said to make a good substitute for soap, and to be a cure for chapped hands.

¹ "Murray's Guide."

CHAPTER V

JAPANESE LIFE: WORK, WAGES AND FOOD

THE strikes and combination for higher wages in Great Britain and elsewhere make the question of work and wages in the Far East of no slight importance. The sight of the cotton and other factories at Tokyo, Osaka, and other localities in the East, is a visible warning to the English-speaking tourist that Eastern nations are entering into competition with the mill-owners of Manchester. In going up the Yang-tse-Kiang river from Woosung to Shanghai, the first large building which attracted our notice was said to be a cotton-mill; and Messrs. Jardine & Matheson, one of the first British firms in the East, have established a cotton-mill at Hong-Kong.

Fortunately it is not difficult to obtain accurate information as to wages in Japan. The *Japan Times*, published at Tokyo, the capital (formerly called Yedo), sent a commissioner in 1897 to visit the chief factories, and made his reports public. A Japanese gentleman, who writes excellent English, Mr. Takane Fusatoro, has also given us the results

of his careful investigations in the *Far East*—an English edition of a Japanese magazine; and Miss Scidmore, a foreign resident, furnishes many details in her “Jinrikisha Days.”

Wandering one Sunday morning in Kyoto in search of the American Episcopal Church, under the charge of a guide who professed to know the way, but did not, the rattle of the shuttle, or of some machinery, was heard as we passed a large mill. All hands were hard at work on Sunday morning. It is true that the British Sabbath¹ has been introduced into the Government offices, which are now closed, just as ours are. But there is no doubt about the fact that workers in many mills are expected to work as a rule seven days a week and eleven hours a day.

The district of Tokyo comprises a population of one million eight hundred thousand. This figure is rather in excess of the usual number given, but in any case the capital city and the area around are densely populated. As may be imagined, countless factory chimneys rise on all sides. Within a district of twenty-six square miles more than three thousand factories² of different kinds are in operation. These include cotton-spinning, paper, printing,

¹ This Sabbath is a mere holiday of convenience, and has no religious significance. The Officials finding most foreign offices closed on Sunday, gladly followed suit.

² These are the figures of Mr. Fusatoro; they seem large.

tobacco, and other mills, equipped with modern machinery and employing over twenty thousand hands. A return to the Mill Owners' Association from three of the largest mills, using an aggregate number of seventy thousand spindles, and having a capacity for turning out two hundred and forty thousand pounds of yarn per month, is given by Mr. Fusatoro. It is for November 1896, and runs thus :—

	No. of spindles	No. of days at work.	Hours of work in a day.*	No. of male Work- men.	No. of females.	Average daily wage of men.	Average daily wage of women.
A	40,578	28½	22	568	1,763	d. 6¼	d. 4½
B	23,686	26	23	357	1,204	5¾	3¼
C	4,925	25	22	56	240	6¼	3¾

The figures, it should be observed, are given by the mill owners themselves. Of the thirty days in November, two are public holidays: November 3rd, the Mikado's (or Emperor's) birthday, universally observed; and November 23rd, the second harvest festival. But there are numerous local as well as general festivals, and these perhaps give the mill hands more respite from their work than we might at first suppose.

The commissioner of the Japan *Times* and Mr.

* N.B.—By two relays of mill-hands—a double shift, as we say in England.

Fusatoro agree in stating that the mills in Japan run as a rule at least twenty-two hours per day, the operatives being required to work ten and a half or eleven hours per day, taking up the night work by weekly turns, yet receiving no more for work at night than for that done in the day. Imagine our English workpeople toiling all night, yet receiving no more than if the work were done by day! Let us hope that a better state of things will soon dawn in the "Land of the Rising Sun."

The Earl of Shaftesbury has rendered his name immortal by his successful efforts on behalf of our English mill hands. Let us trust that with the introduction of Christianity into Japan, another Shaftesbury may arise and do equally good work in the Far East.

If all the truth is to be told, the condition of affairs in many Japanese mills is simply revolting. Those working in the mills are usually under a contract to serve for three or five years, and are not allowed to leave the service. The greatest care is taken to prevent desertion. "Most of the spinning mills and other factories of Osaka (a town of nearly five hundred thousand inhabitants)," says the *Japan Times*, "have 'black holes.' They are subterranean rooms, looking just like ordinary rooms, yet totally destitute of light. What are the holes for? They are the rooms where operatives, decoyed from other factories, are secretly kept, so that they may not

be noticed when detectives from those factories arrive to search for them. Not unfrequently they quite lose their senses for a time, from bad ventilation and horror of the rooms." The same correspondent states that the farther he goes from Tokyo, the worse do the condition and treatment of the mill hands become. He describes the methods of kidnapping girls, the way in which their correspondence is intercepted, the "bully system" on which the spinning factories at Osaka are conducted, and, indeed, uses language which could not well be repeated.

"The ages of the operatives," says Mr. Fusatoro, "range from eleven to forty, those between seventeen and twenty-five forming the majority. The women are brought chiefly from the country, female children above ten years of age being taken as apprentices. They are boarded and lodged, receiving at first thirty or forty sen ($7\frac{1}{2}d.$ or $10d.$) per month as pocket-money. All are required, irrespective of age, to work full time, whether by day or night. After some months they earn eight to ten sen ($2d.$ or $2\frac{1}{2}d.$) a day, yet are not able to earn as much as twenty-five or thirty sen ($6\frac{1}{4}d.$ or $7\frac{1}{2}d.$) until after four or five years."

Such is the condition and such are the work and wages of mill hands in the most lovely country in the world ! At the time when we landed in Japan a strike of the Samyo Railway mechanics had just

occurred. Three hundred hands are usually employed. These receive $8\frac{3}{4}d.$, $11\frac{1}{2}d.$, and $1s. 5\frac{3}{4}d.$ per day, according to grade. The rise in the price of rice was assigned as a cause of the strike. There are large engineering works in Japan, also technical schools and competent engineers. I myself met a Japanese engineer employed on one of the railways, who had spent seven or eight years in England at large engineering works in Newcastle and Glasgow. What do our Amalgamated Engineers say to the wages earned in Japan by the skilled mechanics?

Silk is the most valuable of the exports; and plantations (plots, perhaps I should say) of young mulberry-trees are in evidence almost everywhere. Silk is sent away mostly in the raw state, reeled as filatures, re-reels, and hanks, as cocoons and waste silks. Manufactured goods are exported chiefly in the shape of handkerchiefs.¹ This export trade grows steadily, and is worth at least £3,000,000 per annum.

These mulberry-trees, by the bye, are useful not only for the leaves and fruit, but also for the wood. The paper makers purchase the stem for the sake of the inside bark. What are the hours and wages of those engaged in this industry? The worms are reared in the homes of the people. "Each house becomes a nursery for worms, and a home factory."² Every member of the family engages in the work.

¹ Chamberlain's "Things Japanese," p. 438.

² "Jinrikisha Days," p. 256.

Wages in silk districts, says Miss Scidmore, range from eight to twenty cents. (4*d.* to 10*d.*) for a day's work of eighteen hours, the higher price being paid only to the most expert and experienced ; yet she describes the silk districts and villages as always thriving, prosperous, and tidily kept, forming peaceful and contented communities. Land is usually attached to the houses, and assists to maintain the family. The description given of this industry is interesting. The houses are all spacious, exquisitely clean, ventilated, and kept at an even temperature. Sheets of paper coated with eggs, and looking like so much sandpaper, will in a few days fill the waiting trays with tiny white worms. The mulberry leaves have to be chopped as fine as dust for these new-comers, which are daily lifted to fresh trays by means of chopsticks, the fingers being too rough and strong for such delicate handlings. For a week at a time the tiny gluttons crawl and eat, then take a day and night of sleep, maintaining this routine for five weeks, when, having grown large enough, they begin to wind themselves up in cocoons. Then the cauldron of boiling water and the whirling reel change the yellow balls into great skeins of shining silk, ready to be twisted, tied, and woven, either at home or across the seas.

Tea comes next after silk among the exports of Japan. The shrubs (not unlike our box used in some gardens for edging, or our privet) may be

noticed in all the southern parts, both in the lower grounds and on terraces, rising tier above tier on the hill- or mountain-sides. Green tea is a favourite drink, taken without sugar or milk, in small cups. At the railway stations one may purchase a tiny tea-pot filled with hot water poured on one or two leaves, and a tiny cup, for a very trifling sum. This green tea goes chiefly to the United States; in Europe teas from India and China are preferred: yet the amount exported is said to exceed forty million pounds annually. The leaf of all teas intended for exportation must be subjected to "firing"; even if despatched to the ports, it must be "fired" before the journey, and undergo again a similar process before it is sent over the seas. The tea-leaves are placed in a large iron pan beneath which is a slow charcoal fire. The "coolies" (as they are called by most English-speaking people) stand over the pans and stir the leaves continually with their hands. Indigo, Prussian blue, and other colouring matter, are added, according to the fancy of the market. The second firing of tea intended for distant exportation, and for special orders, is a more elaborate affair than the first; it is sometimes called "polishing." The tea season lasts for four months, and the "firers" (according to Miss Scidmore)¹ receive about 6*d.* per

¹ A resident remarks that "Jinrikisha Days" was published several years ago, and wages in some districts have certainly risen.



JAPANESE GIRLS AND CHILDREN.

day for thirteen hours' work, less expert hands about 5*d.* for the same time. Those who sort and finally pack the tea (after it has been sifted and picked over) earn 7½*d.*

The coolies who come in crowds on boats as soon as it is light, to coal a ship, or to discharge a cargo, are quite a feature of the country. The air at dawn in November is often cold, and almost every one, men, women, and lads, have on their heads a white, blue, or coloured cotton covering, looking, indeed, so bright and clean that it seems unfitted for such dirty work. But the cleanliness and tidy habits of these people generally cannot be too highly praised. Then they proceed to arrange the apparatus,—a series of steps from the barges to the coal-bunk. As soon as it is ready, the work of passing up the coal from hand to hand in small rattan baskets is begun and continued most merrily for hours.

Fond as the people are of water (the bath and bathing are a national passion), rain alarms them : in wet weather they won't come coaling ! As soon as the dirty work is done you may notice them cleaning their hands in the water. If cleanliness is next to godliness, the Japanese are on the right path ! For a day's toil in coaling a ship they receive (I am told) thirty sen, *i.e.* about 7½*d.* The 'riksha men or runners who draw the two-wheeled carriages, both in the cities and the country (where the roads permit), number about sixty thousand, according to Mr.

Fusatoro. This statement is quite credible, for they are to be seen in all parts of the empire, and the wonder is how so many can find employment. Some few men own their 'riksha (the cost ranges from ten yen (£1) to fifteen (30s.); the others hire the vehicles at a cost of three to five sen ($\frac{3}{4}d.$ to $1\frac{1}{4}d.$) per day. The average earnings are said to be about thirty sen ($7\frac{1}{2}d.$) each.

The married men live usually in an alley or street inhabited by poor people and built in a row ten by fifty feet; this row is partitioned off into four houses, giving a space of ten feet by twelve to each. There are no dining- or bed-rooms in these houses; the front room of each is used for all purposes, and a little space in the rear constitutes the kitchen.

The mother and children assist in finding food and paying the rent. The latter ranges from sixty sen (1s. 3d.) to one yen (2s.) per month. This class is said to be typical of the common labourer. The pawn-shop is described to be even more popular in Japan than in England, and instead of the public-house and dram-shop (as in English-speaking countries), the eating-house (according to a Japanese proverb) is the place where the working man empties his pocket.

The small province of Shima, to the south of Owari Bay has long been famous for its female divers, who evidently earn more than the common Japanese workman. Bare to the waist, with a red nether

garment, they fish up sea-cars and a kind of seaweed, said to make a delicious jelly. Not only do they dive, but they do most of the field-work, which elsewhere men and women share alike. They support their fathers, brothers, and husbands ; these loll about, smoke, play chess, and are (in a word) the weaker vessels ! Few girls find husbands unless they are good divers ! Even the wife of a man in easy circumstances is forced by public opinion to gain her living aquatically.¹

It is often said that wages and prices are rising in Japan, and the guides, who have raised their charge from one to two yen (2s. to 4s.) per day, are fond of impressing this statement upon innocent travellers. No doubt rice and charcoal are dearer ; higher wages, therefore, are needed. But wages and prices fluctuate in Japan, just as elsewhere. Wherever the European appears in the East, prices are sure to rise. He wants more, needs more, will have more than the simple Asiatic. But are there no facts the other way ? In the *Hansei Zasshi*, "a monthly magazine in English edited by Japanese," for September, 1897, I read that owing to the astonishing fall in silver, nearly all the silver mines in Japan have stopped work of late : five thousand miners, for instance, have been discharged at the Innai mine. The Japanese papers are full of the commercial failures at Osaka, the second city of the Empire.

¹ See an interesting account in Murray's Guide Book, p. 256.

These failures will tend to reduce rather than raise the prices of labour.

What food do these people eat? The answer is very simple, for there is little variety. There are usually three meals a day, one, the lightest, when they rise, another at noon, the last about sunset. No animal food, except fish, is eaten; Buddha enjoins that not even an ant should be killed. The country people who raise rice often cannot afford to eat it, but live on millet, barley, fish, and vegetables. The "daikon," a large, strong-smelling radish, like an elongated turnip, is grown everywhere. Small boxes of rice and pickled fish may often be noticed in the trains; chopsticks are produced, and the contents soon disappear. The poor in the cities usually have rice, bean-soup, and pickled vegetables for breakfast; rice, pickled vegetables, and fish for their later meals. Tea, without sugar and milk, is the chief beverage.

Mr. Fusatoro says that the 'riksha men, on earning a good wage, go off to a restaurant and spend ten or fifteen sen each ($2\frac{1}{2}d.$ or $3\frac{1}{2}d.$). For this sum they procure three bowls of boiled rice, a dish of fish (boiled, baked, broiled, or raw) and pickled vegetables,¹ together with a pint or two of saké (rice-brandy: compared, however, to weak sherry kept in a beer-bottle!). Surely in this world there is no accounting for tastes.

¹ Besides the daikon there are the sweet potato, and beans (very common), turnips, the ordinary European potato (in some few places), the egg-plant, cabbages, etc.

CHAPTER VI

WANDERINGS EASTWARD: HONG-KONG

HONG-KONG, the "isle of fragrant streams," as the name signifies in the language of the Chinese, is now undoubtedly one of the most marvellous islands in the world. Eleven miles only at its greatest length, with a breadth of only two in some parts, and little more than four in others, it forms a centre of commerce which, already vast, continues to increase from year to year. The harbour lies between the mainland of China and the island, having narrow entrances at either end; vessels use each of these as occasion may require, according to the quarter from which they are coming. Thirty miles away to the south there is a lighthouse on Gap Rock, and a cable has been laid from the Rock to the city of Victoria, to give notice of the approach of vessels from the south.

The harbour has an area of ten square miles, and is one of the finest and best in the world; it may also claim to be amongst the most beautiful. Vessels of all nationalities resort to it. It is a centre from

which there is direct steam communication to all the chief ports of every country. Hong-Kong is a free port, and no complete official return of the imports and exports appears to be taken. The value of its trade, however, is roughly estimated to amount to about £50,000,000 per annum.¹ In 1895 the vessels that entered the port numbered 19,374 (about 50 a day), of 6,367,702 tons, and 22,798 vessels of 6,746,734 tons cleared with cargoes. Besides these, there entered in ballast 11,726 vessels of 1,249,301 tons, and there cleared 8,218 vessels of 845,549 tons. The British vessels that entered were 3,308 of 4,297,342 tons, and the British vessels that cleared were 3,318 of 4,292,295 tons. The German vessels came next: 638 of 744,811 tons that entered, and 631 of 737,841 tons that cleared. But the Chinese junks that entered numbered 26,554 of 1,848,705 tons, and a rather smaller number cleared. From these figures it is evident that Hong-Kong is one of the chief commercial ports in existence: indeed, it is said to have a sea-trade inferior only to London and Liverpool.

As might be expected, there are extensive docks and dockyards at Kowloon, a dock at Aberdeen, as well as a Government dockyard in the city of Victoria. The former are owned by a private company. Occasionally there are a large number of vessels belonging

¹ Hong-Kong Directory. Whitaker gives £20,000,000—a considerable discrepancy.



THE HAREOUR, HONG-KONG.

to the British or other navies in the harbour, and war-ships of Germany, Russia, and other nations, are repaired in these docks. But our Government reserves the right to use the largest docks at short notice, whenever occasion may require, and it is evident that, while every courtesy and reasonable assistance are accorded to others, British interests are not neglected. A large contribution was made by Government to the original cost. The dock at Aberdeen is used only for clearing the bottoms of ships, as the district is malarious.

Opposite to Victoria, the capital of the island, lies Kowloon (sometimes spelt Kau-lung, "Nine Dragons"), a small peninsula with an area of four square miles. This stretches out into the harbour, and almost divides it into two parts. Sterile and desolate in its rear in some directions, it is full of life and activity along the shore. A large praya, or esplanade, with a massive granite wall, has been made just opposite Victoria ; there are five wharves, as well as a goodly range of "go-downs,"¹ docks, rifle-ranges for soldiers and police, barracks for the Hong-Kong Regiment (chiefly Pathans), a mosque for the Mohammedan soldiers, an observatory, and many fine houses.

¹ This is a favourite term in the East for warehouses and buildings especially constructed to store goods temporarily in course of transit to the interior, or other parts. The word is said to be derived from a Malay word, signifying storehouse.

But Kowloon is nothing compared with Victoria, the beautiful capital of this once barren and uninviting island. A rugged mountain ridge, running from east to west, rises abruptly in one part to a height of 1,823 feet, the highest point being Victoria Peak, where a flag has been erected to signal the approach of all vessels entering the port.

At the foot of this range on the north lies the city, stretching along the shore for four miles, with a seawall strongly built of large granite blocks, extending the whole way. The solid, permanent character of all the buildings must strike the observation of most ; even those on the east and west, inhabited by the Chinese, are built in a substantial fashion, though often disfigured by apparitions and objects making a strange medley. Above the city, with its wide esplanade, handsome public buildings, warehouses, and Chinese "hongs,"¹ rise churches and European residences, tier above tier, all built in the same substantial style ; while bungalows and large houses are visible on the summits of the hills. The city is sometimes said to resemble Naples, but the hills here rise more abruptly than at the latter place. A cable tram draws the traveller many hundred feet up to Victoria Gap, near the Peak, in nine minutes, and the air of the Peak, according to my experience, is far more wholesome than the air a thousand feet below.

If the visitor desires to see the island at its best,

¹ A Chinese name for a factory or mercantile house.

he should visit it in the cool season,—preferably in December or January. There are excursions to various places of great interest. Victoria Peak, the highest point in the island, is easily reached. The view from this point on a clear day is magnificent. Below is the harbour, with its motley array of vessels ; and a considerable part of the city, with its countless activities, is also visible. Around are various islands belonging to the Ladrone and other groups. To the south-east of the island, broken peaks, some barren, others covered with pine-woods, rise at intervals. The alternating valleys possess views of ceaseless interest. Opposite are the mountains which separate Kowloon from China ; one of them, Tai-mo-shan, has an elevation of over three thousand feet.

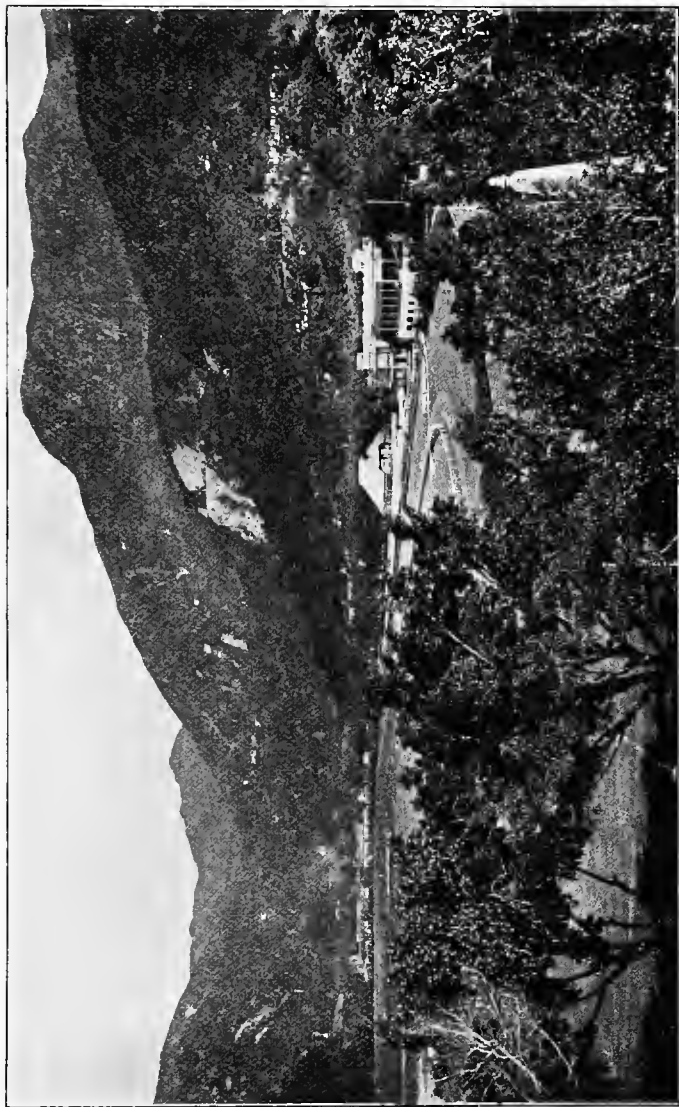
The Bowen Road offers a specially attractive walk. This is a level path, four hundred feet above the harbour, running over a conduit which conveys the bulk of the water used in the city from the Tytam Reservoir to the Albany Filter Beds. Following the contour of the hills, it gives a continually varying panorama of the harbour below and the mountains beyond. The pedestrian who follows its winding course for five miles to its termination at the head of the famous “ Happy Valley,” will be amply rewarded.

The Happy Valley forms a perfect amphitheatre, the hills on all sides but one enclosing a circular expanse of level turf, devoted to the recreation of the people. This space is girdled by the racecourse.

Here, in February, the annual race-meeting is held, attracting a vast concourse of people from many parts of China, to witness the races. Even the apathetic natives are enthusiastic over this event. On the western slopes, close to the grand stand, lie the silent dead, whose resting-place, beautified with bright flowers, and shaded by waving palms, overlooks the scenes of activity and pleasure below. In this cemetery graves are dug ready to receive those who may fall in life's contest—for the exigencies of the climate require that there should be very little delay before the dead are laid in their last earthly bed. The sorrowing survivors have hardly realised the loss that came with the sunrise ere the setting rays of the same sun fall on their performance of the last sacred rites. Here Parsee and Protestant, Roman Catholic, Jew, and Moslem, lay their dead. But for each religious body there is a separate ground. The Parsee and Protestant divisions are adorned with palms and flowers, cultivated with so much skill as almost to rival the Botanic Gardens in the centre of the city. The Chinese have their cemeteries on the slopes of Mount Davis on the west, and Mount Caroline on the east, which serve for the city of Victoria; there is too a Chinese cemetery for every village.

No one, on first landing in Victoria, can fail to be struck with the variety and mixture of races there.

Here comes a red-coated, white-helmeted British



THE HAPPY VALLEY, HONG-KONG.

soldier, walking with head erect and a step that seems to indicate his conscious connection with a conquering race ; there goes a swarthy, red-turbaned Pathan soldier, six feet high at least, bearded, unassuming in gait, yet firm and resolute ; here is a Chinese policeman, who scatters the countless young Chinamen playing in the streets with a mere toss of his hand. Then there are grave, solid-looking Parsees, with hats which rise vertically, yet do not shade the eyes ; Sikh policemen, tall, dark-haired, and not unlike the Pathan soldiers ; a few British "Bobbies," clad as in our own country ; Chinamen without end, some well dressed, others half-naked, carrying burdens of all kinds ; English cricket- and tennis-players ; British, American, German, and other sailors ; Chinese processions ; now and then a Chinese lady walking on her stumps ; one or two companies of soldiers off to Stanley for a twenty-mile march ; Japanese ladies ; business-men or visitors hurrying to and fro, often in 'rikshas ; delicate ladies or well-faring men, carried by three or four bearers in a sedan-chair,—all make up a scene of never-ending interest.

Who are employed to keep this mixed multitude in order ? The responsibility is great, and the task by no means an easy one. Canton, with its enormous population, is but ninety-five miles distant, while Hong-Kong lies at the mouth of the Canton River. The steamers which ply daily between Victoria and

Canton often convey six or seven hundred Chinese. The Chinese population of Hong-Kong is about 230,000; of Canton, it is said to be 2,000,000!

Detectives and British police, in the well-known blue, are usually present at the departure and arrival of all steamers; and it is well they are. There are many secret societies among Chinamen; the colony, indeed, would not be safe were not some of these forbidden and nipped in the bud. Chinamen are not unfrequently deported. The great proportion of Chinese live in Victoria, the population of which numbers about 180,000; Kowloon contains 20,000 inhabitants. Upwards of 20,000 Chinese live in boats. The resident European and American population does not number more than 4,500. Past experience has proved that a strong arm and stern rule are as necessary here as among other Eastern nations. This point the British Government has not overlooked. There is a police force numbering about 500 men, under a British superintendent. Of these a fifth part are British or European-born; there are also a large number of Indians (200), chiefly Sikhs. Their tall figures, made more imposing by the red turban, may be seen almost anywhere; and it appears to be the general opinion that they are a most efficient body. There are also 200 Chinamen (or Lukongs) wearing a special dress; Chinese are also employed as detectives. In addition to these there is a strong garrison, engineers, artillery, and a

regiment of British infantry, besides a Hong-Kong regiment, consisting chiefly of Pathans from North India ; numbering altogether over 3000. There is, moreover, a small squadron for harbour defence, and sometimes as many as ten or more vessels of the British Navy may be seen in the harbour. All these forces are available for the preservation of order, as well as for the security of the colony.

Hong-Kong appears to be very prosperous. Buildings and improvements are proceeding in all directions. Chinese men, lads, and women may be seen carrying small loads of earth in a rattan basket, or bricks bound together, or heavy stones, with surprising skill. Half a dozen or more tie a rope round a stone and carry it to its destination. No horses, mules, or any beasts of burden, are employed. There are scarcely any on the island. Labour is very cheap, and any amount of it can be obtained from the mainland opposite. Wood is almost all sawn by manual labour ; it is a sight to see the half-naked Chinamen sawing a huge piece of timber under a blazing sun.

The water of the island is obtained by impounding the streams, and is of excellent quality. A reservoir was first constructed at Pokfulum, three miles from the city, five hundred and fifty feet above the sea-level. This reservoir, which still supplies a small portion of the city, will hold 70,000,000 gallons. In 1888 a second reservoir was completed in the

Tytam valley, the water being brought to the city through a mile of tunnel and four miles of conduit, over which runs the Bowen Road, previously mentioned. The reservoir was enlarged in 1896, and will now hold 410,000,000 gallons, the highest water level being five hundred and ten feet above the sea. The average daily consumption is about sixteen gallons per head, exclusive of trade supplies, which amount to about three gallons per head more, making a total of nineteen gallons, a by no means excessive consumption for a city lying within the tropics. It must be borne in mind, however, that very little water is used for municipal purposes, whilst the harbour is available for bathing. Water can be supplied to all houses in the city and hill district. The city is supplied by gravitation, and water-motors have been erected for pumping into reservoirs built in suitable positions for supplying the higher levels. Water-works have also been constructed for the supply of Kowloon, and of one or two villages in the island of Hong-Kong.

By the kindness of the chief engineer I was permitted to see the Royal Dockyard; and a grand sight it is, with its numberless machines and appliances for repairing, refitting, and victualling our war-ships. The yard sometimes makes its own engines and boilers. Chinese are chiefly employed, but the foreman of each department is usually a British subject. The wages of the labourers are about 6*d.* a day, but

they are better paid than those in Chinese employ. Women, under Chinese employers, usually earn 3*d.* to 4*d.*; men 4*d.* to 6*d.* Chinese mechanics in the yard earn various sums up to 2*s.* 6*d.* per day. What would our engineers say to such a wage? But the Asiatic has fewer wants and a warmer clime. The coal used comes chiefly from Cardiff; that from Japan has been tried, but is not strong enough. In fact, the Cardiff coal is, I am assured, the best of its kind in the world.

Afforestation has worked wonders in Hong-Kong. The barren, burning rock no longer lifts its once uncovered, hideous head; smiling woods and verdant vales are seen on all sides. The palm-trees in the gardens, in the burial-grounds, and even in the main street, are often splendid specimens of one of Nature's noblest trees. The shade afforded by the "banians" (*Ficus retusa*) planted along the roads, or wherever shade is needed, is most welcome, even in winter time. They are well pruned and cared for. The bright-green leaf is a grateful contrast to the white and dusty ground around. Bamboo hedges often line the road where protection from the sun or wind is needed, and the colony ere long will be rich in this most useful wood. Bananas are handsome and abundant; poinsettias glow with crimson blossom in December. The cactus and aloe may be seen in great perfection in the Botanical Gardens; there, too, may be seen lofty specimens of *Araucaria*

excelsa (the Norfolk Island pine); the eucalyptus from Australia, the aleurites triloba (candle-nut tree) from the Moluccas, and many others. In 1893, 353,663 trees were planted throughout the island. In 1896 camphor-trees¹ were planted along a road for three and half miles; and every year a large addition is made to the pines, according to the site and elevation. Care is taken to thin, prune and protect the trees, and the sale of wood for practical purposes is steadily increasing. The superintendent approves of *Cunninghamia sinensis*, as the best pine, planting twenty thousand trees at a time, and commends *Bischofia javanica* and *Liquidambar formosana*. *Pinus massoniana*, previously known as *Pinus sinensis*, is also very largely planted. Ferns of all kinds abound; and an orchid-house, heated in the coldest months, has recently been added to the Botanical Gardens. But as the best localities for profitable trees have now been filled, the number planted each season diminishes from year to year.

Hong-Kong has its drawbacks, and some of a serious and alarming character. Of these, not the least is the typhoon. So great is the destructive capacity of this furious wind that trees are uprooted, houses unroofed and sometimes levelled with the ground, junks and sampans that have failed to gain

¹ Camphor-wood is very valuable as a protection against white ants, the special pests of Asiatic countries, and, in colder climes, against moths.

shelter dashed against the praya wall, and shivered into matchwood, and even large steamers torn from heavy moorings. Indeed, it is authentically reported that in 1874 big vessels were lifted out of the water and stranded high and dry on the praya frontage. So destructive is the typhoon that in all houses special fastenings are provided for protection against its force. Amongst lesser drawbacks, caterpillars in myriads attack the trees, and an army of pickers must be employed at times to save even a portion of the latter. Great damage is frequently done by fires in grass and jungle. The climate in summer is most oppressive with heat, rain,¹ and fogs ; the last occasionally continue for two or three weeks, until everything is soaked. Photographs fade, furniture, unless most solidly constructed, falls to pieces ; books and clothes are stained, if not ruined ; boots are greened in a night ; everything, save vegetation, suffers. White ants are most destructive where they gain an entrance, boring countless holes in wood. Mosquitoes torment the unwary ; flying cockroaches require a net to keep them off as much as the mosquitoes. There is a spider, it is true, which fattens on the cockroach ; but the latter is so lusty that the former needs several days to digest him ! Meanwhile

¹ The rainfall at the Botanical Gardens for 1894 was 112·86 inches ; for 1895, 53·55 inches ; for 1896, 77·62 inches ; giving an average for three years of about 81 inches. The total mean rainfall in the island is, however, 88 inches.

others arrive to fill the vacancy caused by the death of their departed friend !

So visitors, to enjoy Hong-Kong, should arrive in December, and leave before March or April. We were most fortunate in arriving at the right time ; and excellent weather favoured us during the whole of our stay.

CHAPTER VII

JOHN CHINAMAN AND THE CHINESE

“JOHN CHINAMAN” and the Chinese are the marvel, if not the mystery, of modern times. Individually and collectively, the people are not only interesting, but to the British Empire they are all-important. British Columbia, the most promising Province of Canada, one of the most brilliant gems among the many jewels of the British Crown, could not be “run” (as the Provincials say) without “John’s” aid. He had no small part in making the Canadian Pacific Railway. He can do, and is ready to do, anything and everything, provided only that he is paid a fair wage. In Hong-Kong he and his people number over ninety per cent. of the population. In the city of Victoria, the capital of Hong-Kong, there are 170,000 Chinese. In Singapore the proportion of Chinese to the whole population, Malays and Europeans, is 66 per cent. ; in Penang the proportion is 70 per cent. It cannot be doubted, I think, that the flourishing condition of our colonies in the Far East is in a great degree due to the presence and

co-operation of this remarkable race. How many do they number? What is the gross population of the enormous area commonly called China? The allied armies, on the capture of Nankin in 1842, found returns giving the population as 396,000,000.

A report from the Russian Minister in Peking in 1858 makes the total to amount to 414,687,000. This number exceeds the Chinese census of 1842, and doubts have been cast on its accuracy. The average population does not equal in density the returns from some parts of Bengal in the Indian Census.¹ All accounts agree that the population in some parts is exceedingly dense. Those who have seen the streets of Canton, of Shanghai, of Victoria, or the Chinese villages in Hong-Kong, will not wonder at the large numbers in these returns.

But this vast population does not include those who have wandered away from their native land. Their name is also legion. Wherever the British flag is unfurled, there "John Chinaman" is pretty sure to follow. In Malaysia the Chinese now outnumber the native population, and increase in a greater ratio.

In and around the Straits Settlements there are said to be more than 600,000. Large numbers are in British Borneo, and Labuan. They land as coolies, but their industry and ability often raise them in the social scale. In Further India they are very

¹ See Professor Rhys Davies on Buddhism, p. 6.

numerous. The trade of the great port of Rangoon is largely in their hands. In the commercial cities further up country, such as Mandalay, they continue to increase. In Sir Lepel Griffin's opinion the future of Burmah belongs to the Chinese.¹ In the Dutch East Indies they number several hundred thousands. In other parts, such as Siam, where they are said to exceed a million ; in Cochin China ; along the auriferous parts of the banks of the Upper Yenesei river in Siberia—there are considerable numbers : so that the Chinese outside China make up a large total.

In some of our colonies and elsewhere there are signs that many Chinamen possess considerable wealth. Mr Tutokomi, the Japanese editor of the *Kokumin-no-tomo*,² in an interesting article on the Chinese, remarks that there are five or six exceedingly rich Europeans in Hong-Kong, while there are twenty or thirty wealthy Chinese. He forgets that Europeans who have made any money run away from an island which may be charming for three months in the year, but certainly is not so for the other nine. The manager of a leading Eastern bank wished recently to retire. The directors were obliged to offer him a salary second only to that of the Viceroy of India, to retain his services. "In Penang many of the Chinese residences surpass those of

¹ See Mr. Dyer Ball's "Things Chinese," an excellent book.

² This magazine corresponds to the English magazine *The Far East*. Both are published at To'kyo, the capital of Japan.

the Europeans in splendour of furniture and architecture." The climate of Penang is hot and damp. Europeans soon "pale" and fade in such a climate. "John," however, can make himself at home, consider himself settled for life, and add probably from time to time to the number of his wives.¹ "Here also," continues the writer, "these people have finer stores and greater possessions than the white race. Though the Chinaman cannot crush his master, still he has the power to rival him." Rivalry is the condition now of all success. Germans as well as Chinese come to the front both at Hong-Kong and the Straits. "Live and let live" is our rule, and is in some degree the secret of our success as a colonising race. The Chinese seem to be created to become the ministers of mankind. My daughter in British Columbia says they are famous "copy cats." At present they are utterly unfit to rule, but as subjects they are submissive and orderly as long as a firm hand and a sufficient force are over them.

What is the secret of their success?

1. The Chinese, from the crowded condition of their country, are bound to be industrious, if they are to live at all. Rice is the chief food throughout

¹ While at Hong-Kong the Chinese comprador of our hotel (*i.e.*, the steward who manages a large part of the business of an hotel or house, buying almost everything, engaging and dismissing servants) was reported to have paid a visit to Canton (ninety miles away) and to have bought his sixth wife. These wives are an outward and visible sign of wealth.

the southern portion of the empire, and rice requires very careful cultivation. The industrious Chinaman knows no Sabbath, scarcely any holiday ; he begins work with the dawn and ends it only when daylight fails him. In British Columbia some employers are humane enough to give their "Chinaman" a rest on Sunday. At Hong-Kong, however, at the time of my visit, men and women were working for a Chinese contractor outside the churches while the Sabbath services were being held. Young "John" at school knows no half-holiday on Wednesday or Saturday, no Christmas or summer vacations. Work continues from daylight to dark, only enough time for meals being allowed.¹ "In England," says Mr. Dyer Ball, "schools are a nuisance to their neighbours at play-time. There is no play-time in Chinese schools. They are a nuisance when they are at their lessons" [from the loud noise they make in repetition].

2. But "John" is something more than a mere labourer. He can be a hewer of wood and a drawer of water when occasion requires ; he shrinks from no task, no detail ; his versatility is amazing. No work to him is dishonourable or degrading. You find Chinese in the mines of Cariboo, the hay-fields on the Fraser River, the Canadian Pacific steamers, in laundries, shops, hotels ; and as gardeners they drive all others out of the field, wherever they

¹ "Things Chinese," by Mr. Dyer Ball: "Education."

may be. At the chief bank at Yokohama "John" stands at the counter, ready with his *abacus*, or counting-board, to verify every payment about to be made by the pale-faced European clerk. At Hong-Kong, in the shipping and other offices, in the harbour boats and steam launches, John Chinaman is everywhere. The ladies of Hong-Kong have discovered that the cheapest drapers' shops are in Chinese streets. The chief photographer is a Chinaman. In washing and laundry work, his only rivals are his own countrymen.

3. "John" is often crafty as well as versatile. In a colony, which I need not name, a new road was about to be made. The work was a large one. Tenders were invited. The lowest came from John McGregor. On the Board which awarded the tender were several Scotchmen. They, of course, were pleased to award the work to one with so good a name, yet did not seem to know who the individual was. He proved to be a Chinaman! He had noticed the number of Scotchmen on the Board, and had assumed a new name, as the Chinese often do!¹ No one would accuse the nation of being sympathetic or kind. They get more work at less pay out of their own countrymen than any European can. So the work was done at a cheap rate and well, by John McGregor, Chinaman, and all were satisfied.

¹ This story was sent to me when in the "Far East" from England, the writer being a vice-chairman of a County Council.



A PRISONER AT THE BAR, CHINA.

4. "John," too, can live where others would starve. One of the chief complaints against the Chinese in British Columbia is, that they live on nothing, spend nothing, yet send large sums away. Even the silks that they wear come from China! But they pay import duty. It is true, "John" can live on very little. He is the best vegetable gardener in the world, and can raise crops on ground where no one else can. See the strange patches of land brought under cultivation wherever he is! His vegetables are sure to grow; for he often brings fresh soil as well as water, and, long after dark, is out with a lantern searching for slugs! He is not particular about his food; all are good fish that are caught in his net. The contrast between him and the European is thus put by Mr. Tutokomi: "The civilised European is so luxurious in his habits, that he must rest on Sundays¹ and have a half-holiday on Saturday. He has his friends to entertain, and his wife to please.² When he has earned a certain amount, he must return to his native land and take a rest. When he makes a trip, he must take two or three trunks to satisfy his enlightened taste, since his taste is so developed." (Mr. Tutokomi might also have referred to the ex-

¹ In Japan the public offices are now closed on Sundays, but ordinary work usually proceeds, as on other days.

² It has been said that one difference between East and West is this: In the East the wife must please the husband, in the West the husband must please the wife.

penditure on heavy drinks, often so deadly in the East.) "The European therefore cannot afford to sell for a lower price than that which he asks in the market." No wonder, then, that "John" is continually gaining ground in Hong-Kong, Singapore, Penang, and elsewhere. Just as European ladies go to Chinese drapers, so the white men go to Chinese tailors. I saw a young Scotchman, six feet three inches tall, clad in a complete summer suit at a Chinese shop in Hong-Kong for six dollars, *i.e.* twelve shillings.

5. It is also said that the Chinese have commercial morality. Their morality generally is so doubtful that I personally should hesitate to put this point in their favour. But their neighbour, Mr. T., cited above, commends them in this respect, and the opinion in the East seems to be the same. The contrast, indeed, between the Chinese and Japanese in regard to commercial morality is very marked. "The Japanese have none," said an old resident at Yokohama; and in this respect, I believe, there is but one opinion. In Mr. L. Hearn's "*Kokoro*"¹ it is stated that a European firm, having recovered in the Japanese Courts a large sum due to them, were informed that a Guild² had been arranged, and that the members would not henceforth deal with the firm if the

¹ Mr. L. Hearn is now, I believe, a professor at Tokyo University.

² *I.e.*, a combination of rogues.

amount recovered in court were exacted without a large deduction. But "John" knows his interest too well to act in such a fashion. Some of his countrymen are prosperous merchants, having wide connections, good carriages, splendid houses; and these would scarcely be without commercial confidence and some commercial morality.

6. "John" dearly loves a bargain, and revels in bartering. I wanted a box. "Go to a Chinaman," said a bank clerk, "and bargain with him for an hour over the price." Time is a cipher to the Oriental; but tastes, too, differ on this point! It is said that "John" will even sometimes sell at a loss, rather than lose the enjoyment of a long discussion over a small sum. One morning, at Canton, we noticed a Chinaman, evidently wishing to hire a boat. The offers were numerous. He spent half an hour running from one to another before the bargain was concluded! But "John," in his bargains, does not look for large profits. The Japanese, more courteous, but less wise, get all they can, and are at length found out. "John" contents himself with small "squeezes," as they are called. The comprador of my hotel sent me a large box (iron-bound) of camphor-wood, for six dollars (12s.). No doubt he made his profit; yet I was well content. The general testimony is that "John's" "squeezes" are gentle. There has been a bargain; but let us hope, not always an unfair one.

7. "John," too, is very fond of gambling. "Gambling hells" are the plague of our Settlements. The owners bribe the police, if they can, to keep matters quiet. In the Malacca prison during 1895 there were fifty-two Chinese convicted of gambling, as against thirty-one convicted of theft. To give an account of all their games of chance would require almost a volume. But I have often seen a dozen Chinese or more standing round an orange-stall, and gambling respecting the number of pips inside an orange. A loose-skinned one is selected, and a guess made at the seeds. A sum is staked by those around a stall; the peel is removed, and the orange opened, by the seller. The man whose number is right receives treble the amount of his stake; the two next gain double theirs. Children gamble for sweets and fruit; the passion is universal.¹

What is to be their future? "Never prophesy," says the proverb, "unless you know;" yet one may hazard a few remarks. "John" is a good citizen enough as long as he is kept under strong control and strict discipline. He is the most material being in the world, and though he has not the drinking vice of Europeans, he is often the incarnation of Bacchus. Opium and gambling are his special vices. He is a proud man, serving the foreigner often with special devotion, yet regarding himself as his superior. So he has no sense of shame, no modesty, nor fear

¹ See "Things Chinese: " "Games of Chance."

of the white man, whom he serves simply to suit his own purposes. He has no religion, unless it be the worship of ancestors, so that he has no principles, no backbone. The way in which he treats the weaker sex is an illustration of his character. Their condition, the result chiefly of the teaching of Confucius, is truly lamentable. Girls are often bought and sold without compunction. Mr. Dyer Ball says that there are thousands in Hong-Kong who are practically slaves. So woman does not elevate man, but is forced to make him more degraded.

"John," moreover, is not only without religion, but also without patriotism. He loves the land, it is true, where he was born. There are districts in China where the people are chiefly those who have returned from a willing exile.¹ Most Chinamen hope and try to return, if only for a time. Yet if he loves the land, he does not love the rulers. They are far too fond of bribes. They have won their way by competition and public examination, but their pay is too small to enable them to live honestly. So these Mandarins squeeze all they can in every direction.

A country, then, in which there is no patriotism, no bond of cohesion between the rulers and the ruled, no sense of responsibility to a higher power

¹ So I was told by the captain of a British vessel plying on a Chinese river.

on the part of the people or their chiefs, cannot last as a political power any great length of time. It is for the good of the Far East, in my opinion, that China should be brought under the complete control of the Christian powers.

CHAPTER VIII

SINGAPORE—PENANG—A STRAITS PRISON

SINGAPORE, five or six days' voyage from Hong-Kong, when the weather is fair and your ship can steam twelve knots an hour, is not so striking a sight from the sea as "the isle of fragrant streams." There are (as at Hong-Kong) two entrances; for Singapore, like Hong-Kong, is an island, only on a larger scale. The width of the latter, in some places, does not exceed two miles; its greatest length is not over eleven miles. Singapore is about fifteen miles long and twelve broad. The western entrance is said to be one of the most beautiful in the world, and in picturesqueness approaches very nearly the far-famed one to Sydney harbour. The sea, as seen from near New Harbour, is dotted with emerald-coloured islets, clothed throughout the year in the freshest green. Skirting the coast one sees Malay pile-built huts peeping out here and there from the jungle. The whole forms a picture of unique beauty, full of artistic delight to the stranger. I was disappointed when

we anchored to see so few ships in what I had heard was one of the chief harbours of the East. But a brief time on land revealed the fact that vessels from Europe enter at the other end. The waters near the town are crowded with shipping, and my daughter, in a voyage from England to Hong-Kong, was more impressed by the vessels in Singapore harbour than by those in any other port. As a matter of fact, the amount of tonnage which enters and clears is very much the same as at Hong-Kong. Not a few of these are junks or steamers proceeding to or from Hong-Kong. The trade, in truth, of the Settlements and of the protected States is steadily increasing. Mines are being opened, railways are being made, and a loan has recently been sanctioned to assist the construction of the latter. Steamers, too, ply to Borneo, an important part of which is British territory, and to the other islands around.

There are no high hills at Singapore as there are at Penang.¹ The latter place is encircled by forest-clad mountain heights, although the city itself is on level ground. There is no escape therefore at Singapore from the high temperature, which prevails

¹ A friend living at Penang, and of course preferring it to Singapore, remarked that it rains at Singapore every day, but at Penang the rainfall is heavier at certain seasons and not so continuous. My experience of Singapore enables me to say that it does not rain every day there!

with great regularity all the year round. On the few elevated positions, bungalows have been built; but residents however must expect a temperature averaging about seventy-nine degrees at all seasons. The city has no very striking feature, but the cathedral, the Hindoo Temple, with its grotesque wall-paintings and images, the fountain erected to commemorate the munificence of a Chinaman who presented the city with water-works, the Raffles Educational Museum, and the Hong-Kong Bank, are all worthy of notice. The Malay dwellings outside the city are quite a novelty to the new-comer. These are built on piles, so that they are raised above the water, of which there is enough and to spare in all directions!

Both at Singapore and Penang the verdure throughout the year is a great contrast to the dust and dryness of Hong-Kong in the winter. The absence of a dry season and the frequent rains in the Malay Peninsula make all trees and shrubs adapted to the climate much more vigorous. The Botanical Gardens in Singapore are almost overdone with the luxuriance due to the constant combination of heat and moisture. But in the garden at Penang there is more room for growth. This, placed in a large natural amphitheatre, with a stream stealing amid the woods down the mountain-side, is a sight never to be effaced from memory. It recalls the "Happy Valley" of Hong-Kong, but

the heights are loftier and the circle of the hills is more complete. The "flame of the forest" (*Ponsiana regia*), a tree with lovely scarlet blossoms, lights up the Garden even when darkness is descending.¹ There are also rubber-trees, palms, bananas, orchids, ferns, and flowering shrubs without end.

The approach to this Garden, four miles from the shore, after the Chinese Quarter has been passed, is like a march through fairyland to the traveller who has not seen Ceylon or India. On each side of the road, besides bungalows and Club Houses, are groves of the cocoa-nut palm, loaded in January with fruit. These noble trees, planted usually thirty feet apart, rise often to a height of seventy feet or more, and bear their fruit near the top. The ripe nuts fall first, but natives manage to mount sometimes by cutting foot-holes in the trunk, more frequently by fastening a rope or band round their body and the trunk, and thus carry off fruit which looks so tempting when apparently out of reach. There is a plantation of cocoa-nut palms stretching for some distance along the shore at Penang. Its appearance, owing to the height and regularity of the trees, when viewed from the deck of the incoming steamer, is very imposing. Similar plantations may be seen at Singapore and elsewhere in the Straits. The cocoa-nut palm loves the sea,

¹ In the Bombay Presidency this tree goes by the name of the "Gold Mohr Tree."

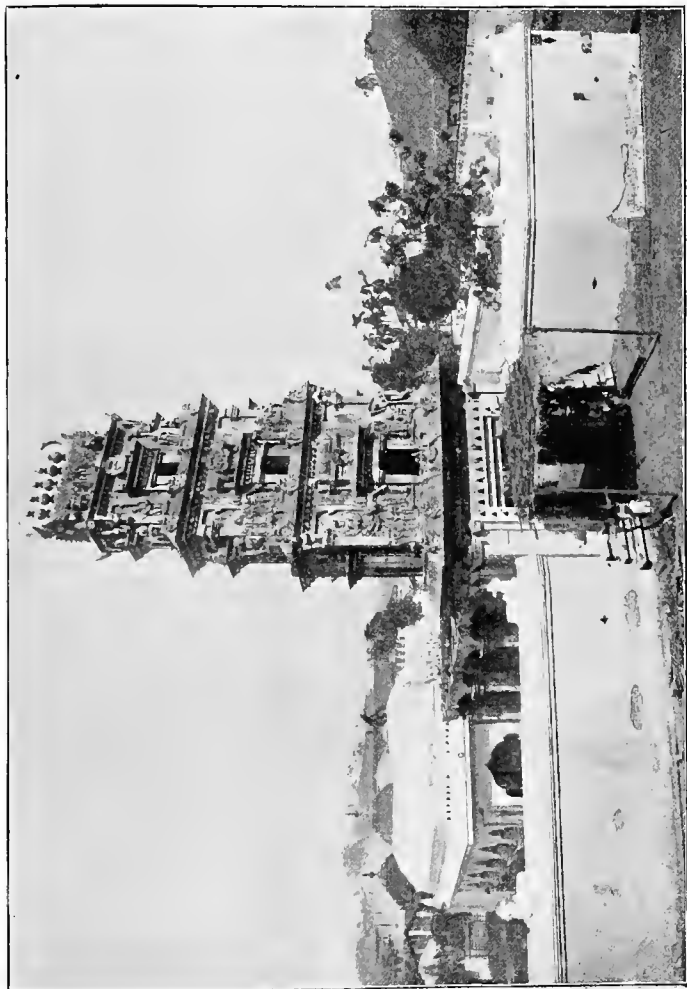
and often bends towards it, so that it is usually planted near the coast.

The mixture of races is, to my mind, the chief feature of Singapore as a city. There are Chinese in tens of thousands—in fact, many more than the Malays, the police, and the prison-warders like. At times they give considerable trouble. Coming as strangers, yet now forming a very large proportion of the population, they are not loved either by Europeans or natives. Criminals who have escaped from China have settled here, and regarded the place, probably, as a safe refuge. But British patience has at last been exhausted. Criminals of a bad type are now to be banished, and banishment to China often means death. These men in many cases are murderers or wrong-doers who have escaped vengeance in their own country ; but henceforth they will be compelled to “clear out” of the Straits Settlements and of Hong-Kong. Besides Chinese, there are the mild Malays, often half clad, brown as a berry, not seldom elegant in figure, but somewhat indolent in appearance. Some portion of their scanty clothing is usually bright-coloured and made more resplendent by an Eastern sun. Then there are tall East Indians, clad in long white linen garments which form a striking contrast to their dark hair and swarthy complexions. Klings, too are there with raven flowing locks, very black complexions, and manly if not haughty bearing. A

Kling girl, with small gold ornaments in her nostrils, and earrings besides, carrying herself with a grace which would not misbecome a duchess, is a sight worth seeing. Then there are nut-brown Tamils from the south-east coast of India. This industrious race, so useful in Ceylon, competes with the Chinese as labourers, and with their national head dress (a bright-coloured turban), are far more interesting. They often have on their foreheads, just above the nose, (both here and in Ceylon) a circular mark or spot, usually white or red, the symbol of the god at whose shrine they have last worshipped. Sometimes lines or marks are added on each side of the forehead. Soft-faced, dark-eyed Sinhalese, Bombay merchants, British soldiers in Kharki, dark-hued Malay police, jack-tars, pale-faced white men in a white dress, with white solar topees, make the scene complete.

In former days, under the old East India Company, Singapore and Japan were penal settlements for natives of India. Malay criminals in their turn were banished by the Company from the Straits Settlements to Bombay. Thus the original Indians in the Settlements were convicts. Many of their descendants are there now. There is also a constant influx of Indian immigrants, mostly from the Malabar coast. These come either as domestic servants or as coolies, to work on the coffee plantations.

The management of this mongrel population involves great difficulties, one chief difficulty being



HINDOO TEMPLE, SINGAPORE.

the various dialects or languages spoken by the Chinese. There are five Chinese dialects commonly spoken in Singapore. The Chinese there are principally Teo-Chew, Cantonese, Hok-kien, Kheh, and Hailam.¹ Their dialects differ so much from each other, that a man may speak one well, yet hardly understand a word of any of the others. The languages of China—and there are at least eight chief divisions, besides local dialects without end²—are so difficult to acquire, that very few Europeans can master even one of them. Thus any dishonest Chinese detective can say anything he likes to his fellow-countryman in the presence of European inspectors, without any fear that the latter will understand him.

The police force for Singapore includes about six hundred Malays and Klings, one hundred and forty Sikhs, and forty Chinese detectives. "Lukons" (*i.e.*, Chinese police) from Hong-Kong were tried but they proved to be so worthless and so unreliable that they were sent back. The employment of Chinese detectives is almost a matter of necessity. Who, however, expects a Chinaman to refuse a bribe or tell all the truth?

¹ For these details I am indebted to Colonel Pennefather, Superintendent of Police on the Settlements, and to the Official Reports.

² See Mr. Dyer Ball's "Things Chinese," a valuable book, page 22.

By the kindness of the Colonial Secretary, I was allowed to visit the prison at Singapore and to see the various inmates at work. The building is an enormous one, containing a prison within a prison. In the inner prison, rigorous imprisonment is enforced, and I was sorry to see that several Europeans had been "interned." There is a special European and Eurasian quarter where whites associate with whites only. I did not notice any of them in irons, though prisoners as a rule are required to wear irons for some time after admission. The regulation, where the great majority of the malefactors are Chinese, is, no doubt, a necessary one. But the number of whites would probably be less, if they were treated just as their darker brethren are, and compelled to associate with them.¹

The total daily average of prisoners in 1892 was 948; in 1893, 884; in 1894, 816; in 1895, 797; in 1896, 844. The increase in 1896 looks rather alarming; but Mr. Merewether, the Inspector of Prisons in the Straits Settlements, remarks:

"The increase is chiefly in the Revenue Grade, *i.e.* prisoners committed for non-payment of fines, and thus indicates a temporary increase in the least serious forms of crime. There are, however, so many factors in determining the number of criminals at any given time, that it is impossible to trace the fluctuations to any definite cause. A magistrate

¹ No such distinction is made in the Ceylon prisons.

with a leaning toward convictions, or a zealous police officer, may cause an increase in the gaol population; so may high prices or an epidemic disease."

The sight of so many prisoners working the tread-mill, or marching from the prison to lay the granite, broken inside, on the roads outside the prison, is a pathetic and even a mournful one. Guards with loaded muskets precede and surround the latter; the former find the task of pumping water for the prison by the revolution of the wheel, in such a climate, very far from agreeable. The wheel was stopped when we entered, and the men were directed to sit down. Profuse perspiration proved that a rest was needed. Some of the few white men looked like soldiers; one at all events seemed to feel his position acutely. We saw large numbers of Chinese and a few Malays working at various trades. Carpenters were making water-buckets; others rattan couches and waste-paper baskets. Some were working up cocoanut fibre, that had been beaten out in another shed, into rope or twine; others were weaving it into matting. Several were making shoes for the European prisoners, others the prison garments; another group were blacksmiths. The large numbers under the charge of a single warder seemed strange, but doubtful and dangerous "cases" are in irons; the discipline, moreover, is evidently good. The diligent and

well-behaved obtain marks, which lessen the severity and even the duration of the sentence.

By a recent regulation, prisoners detained for the non-payment of fines have been required to break a certain quantity of stones, just as other prisoners. They objected, but of course were compelled to do the work. We visited a prisoner who had refused to mount the tread-mill. Two days' solitary confinement, bread and water diet, and a registering crank to work in his cell were allowed him before the "rattan"¹ was applied. In Ceylon no such allowance would be made! The rattan is a powerful argument with old offenders or persons convicted of crimes of violence. It has been said that the Japanese and Chinese know nothing of repentance or of remorse. But the rattan brings repentance, possibly remorse in most cases. Five strokes may become ten, ten may become twenty, so that fear of punishment proves a very useful deterrent.

The total number of prisoners received during the year 1897 was 3,497. Of these 153 were Europeans and Eurasians. The Chinese numbered 2,993, Hokkim 1,453, Cantonese 530, Teo Chew 574, Hailam 264, Kheh 172. Malays were 189, Indians 147, other nationalities 15.

¹ The rattan is an Eastern cane, made of a vine-like creeper. The flexible wood is used for making light furniture, couches, chairs, baskets, and a thousand other things. It serves very much the purposes of our cord and nail.

The task of managing a gaol with such a mixture seems almost insuperable. But difficulties were made for brave men to conquer. There are thirty-one European warders and about sixty Malay sub-warders. No Chinaman would be employed. Our guide, a warder whom we knew in Britain, had come from Millbank and had served eight years at Singapore. He looked none the worse for his work, or the climate. He described these Malays as useful helpers, and we saw several of them with large numbers under their control. The official reports, however, disclose the usual Asiatic tendency on their part to receive bribes. Tobacco, opium, and other forbidden luxuries, are too often conveyed to the prisoners. These warders are searched before they go on duty, and are severely punished if detected in introducing any forbidden article.

For the European warders a good house is provided, and the education of their children is not neglected. Time-expired army men from the regiments at Singapore fill any vacancies that occur. There is now no difficulty in obtaining the services of efficient Europeans.

One remarkable feature of the prison is the absence of female offenders. The disproportion would be almost incredible were it not for the fact that the Chinese in many parts refuse to rear a large number of their infant girls. Around Hong-Kong many are exposed on the islands close at hand.¹ Males are

¹ For further details see Mr. Dyer Ball's "Things Chinese."

allowed to live. The men as they grow up often migrate, and have no females to take with them. They hope no doubt to save, go back to their native land, and marry. It is, then, no matter for surprise that the disproportion of females to males in the Settlements is enormous, both inside and outside of the prison walls. The daily average of male prisoners in the Singapore gaol for 1896 was 841. The daily average of females was three. During the greater part of the year there was only one female prisoner.

About to quit the Straits of Malacca, we entered a "sampan" after dark from the shore of Penang, in order to rejoin the P. & O. steamer. The lightning was flashing vividly around; the waters looked far from agreeable. A storm seemed impending. But the ways of the Malacca Straits are odd. Storms are not feared! The lightning, I was assured, would "clear the air"! Vessels traverse the Straits which would not venture into the Indian Ocean or China Sea. Violent storms and typhoons are unknown. We reached our vessel safely. No storm, happily, troubled us in the Straits.

The following extracts from letters written at Singapore may be of interest:—

August, 1898.—"The great preserving season is still in full swing. We see cartloads of pine-apples passing our doors most of the day, on their way to the factories. The

great plantations here are of pine-apples, gambier,¹ and pepper ; several square miles of country are covered with them. We find the motley crowd here even more curious than in Hong-Kong, as so many different races are congregated here—Malay, Japanese, Boyanese,² Chinese, Klings, with a proportion of Sikhs, all jostle against each other ; they all have their own “pidgin,” and do their own class of work and no other.”

December 1898.—“We were tramping over an estate where three-fourths of the citronella in the world is grown, and after the shoot we went round the distillery. Citronella³ and patchouli⁴ are grown here in large quantities, the latter chiefly by small men (Chinamen) round Johore ; they are distilled and exported to London, and the manager told me (strangely enough) that large quantities are sent to America through London.” *J. S. Bartrum, 14th (West Yorkshire) Regiment.*

¹ *Uncaria gambier* and *Uncaria acida* are grown extensively, producing an earthy-looking substance of a light brown hue, much used in tanning and dyeing.

² “Boyanese are natives from some of the islands around Java. There is the same difference between them and the Javanese proper, as exists between a Scotchman or an Irishman, and an Englishman ; but they are of the same racial type, viz. Malaysian.”

³ Citronella-oil-plant ; *Andropogon Nardus*.

⁴ Patchouli plant ; *Coleus aromaticus*.

CHAPTER IX.

CEYLON—COLOMBO.

THE traveller who wishes to thoroughly enjoy the "Far East" should approach it from Vancouver by the North Pacific route. The Malay Peninsula, Hong-Kong, and even Japan, might seem tame to him after the luxuriant vegetation and endless charms of Ceylon. By leaving Great Britain late in July, he arrives in Canada when the mosquito season is nearly over, yet before the severe weather has set in. November is an excellent month for Japan, December the best of all months usually for Hong-Kong, January the coolest for Ceylon. As for Singapore and the Malay Peninsula, the temperature there is very much the same all the year round, especially at Singapore. "Eternal summer" (with a considerable amount of moisture) reigns supreme; the Europeans there would gladly welcome a brief winter!

We had left Penang, and were soon out of the Straits. Ere long we bade farewell to the coast of Sumatra, and the lighthouse on the northern shore.

Land disappeared ; for days we saw chiefly sky and sea. The heat in this Indian Ocean is often great, but the early mornings in January are usually cool, and even bracing. The traveller should be up with the light, and be out on deck before the sun is hot. A week at sea on any ocean makes the sight of land acceptable, and we were delighted to catch a glimpse of Ceylon, with its mountains rising at no great distance from the shore. Here and there flying fish, like a number of small birds, might be seen above the waters ; “ sea swallows ” of the warmer climes.

The strange canoes, long and narrow, made out of the single trunk of a tree, with the sides raised by twisted fibre from the cocoa-nut tree, were in evidence in all directions. They have on one side a heavy piece of wood, about ten feet away, pointed at both ends as the canoe usually is, and attached to it by two stout bamboo rods, thus securing its stability. This outrigger enables them to live in rough seas. Two oars are used on the other side. A third oar at the end is used to steer the frail craft. Brown sails, triangular in shape, are hoisted when the wind is favourable, and the skill with which these clumsy-looking craft are managed is marvellous.

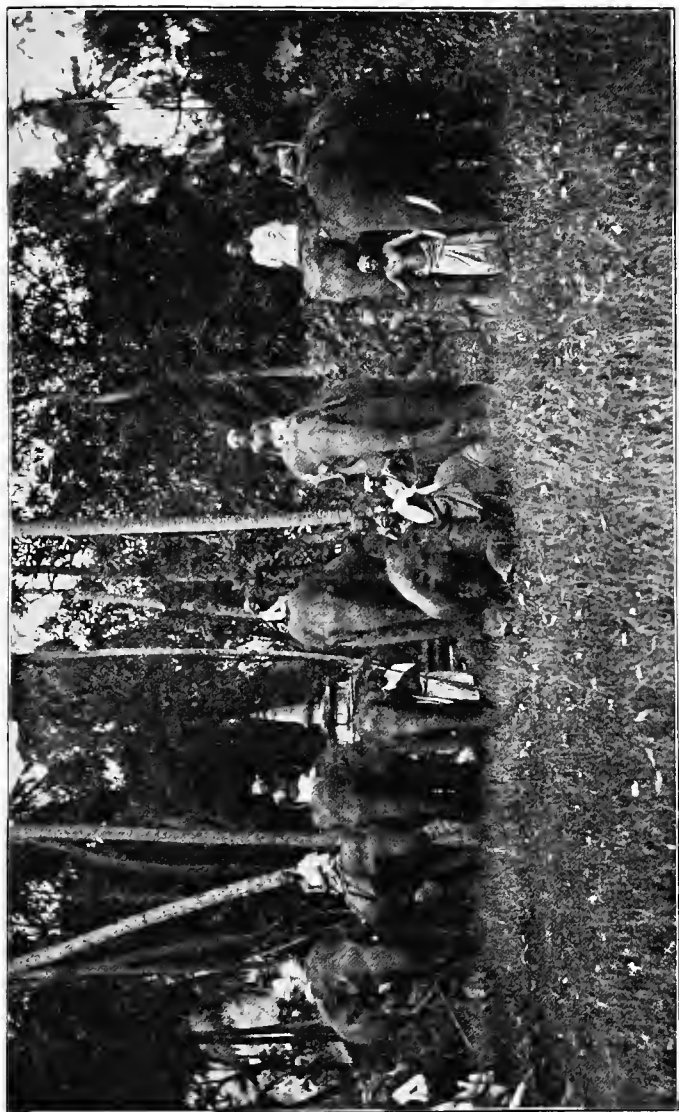
We skirted the coast for some time, keeping away from Galle, once an important but treacherous harbour, and steaming towards the western coasts. As we approached Colombo, the sun had left us, yet

the scene was very charming. The air was clear, the stars shone brightly, and we saw the strong light flashing at frequent intervals from the clock tower in the centre of the city. This light is visible at a distance of seventeen miles. It offers, as it were, a welcome to all weather-beaten travellers, inviting them to a safe and quiet haven.

At the end of the breakwater is a red light, so that vessels can easily enter in ordinary weather, at any hour. We, however, were delayed ; yet who could complain, with so much of interest around ? The "P. & O." pilot was taking the *Himalaya* out of harbour. We waited outside until he could bring our "P. & O." inside. Soon by star- and moon-light we saw the *Himalaya* steaming southwards into the open ocean, cleaving its way towards Australia. In due course we entered, and were soon secured to one of the twenty-six buoys attached to fixed moorings for vessels drawing more than twenty-five feet of water.

Colombo harbour is a legitimate source of pride to every Briton. By means of a breakwater, an open roadstead has been converted into one of the safest and most commodious havens in the East.¹ Sir John Coode, the engineer of our Portland breakwater, drew the plans, and the Prince of Wales laid the first block in December 1875. The breakwater runs out for almost a mile, and when completed

¹ "Local Guide "



ELEPHANTS, CEYLON.

will shelter an area of six hundred and forty acres. A graving dock of the largest size is also to be added. The work has been done chiefly by the labour of the island convicts. The outlay happily is being quickly recouped by the dues paid for the vessels which enter.

This harbour is now a necessary half-way house to the "Far East." The voyage from Suez to Colombo takes almost as much time as the voyage from Vancouver to Yokohama, across the North Pacific. Steamers, therefore, must stop to renew their coal supply. H.M.S. *Powerful*, one of the largest ships in the British Navy, sent recently to China, took in two thousand five hundred tons of Cardiff coal at Colombo. Huge steamers of the "P. & O.," the Orient, the French, German, and other lines, British, French, German, and Russian cruisers, gun-, and torpedo-boats, arrive and depart almost daily. Colombo has become one of the ten chief shipping ports of the world. Tea, the chief product of the island, goes away in enormous quantities. There are, of course, imports of coal, rice, and other articles, in a corresponding degree.

On landing next morning we were surprised to find a company of German soldiers drawn up on the jetty. A German troopship had arrived from Europe, with more than twelve hundred men on board. They were unarmed ; yet the sight of so many foreign warriors in a British port was a little startling

The similarity of type among these men was remarkable. Almost all were light-eyed, fair-haired, rather short and square, solid, not to say stolid-looking. No one who knows China, or the climate of the "Far East," will envy them. Europeans there are exiles. The Fatherland to them will be more dear than ever.

Colombo is a grand place of its kind, yet different from most important cities. The streets near the harbour in the European quarter are all on a large scale, as is usually the case in the East. The post-office presents a very imposing appearance, recalling in its mixture of styles the public buildings recently erected in Japan. "It is what is known as English classical renaissance, its basement being on Doric lines, its ground floor in the Ionic style, its upper portion in the Corinthian."¹ But vegetation is so vigorous that most bungalows and buildings which are not close to the road can scarcely be seen. Cocoa-nut palms on all sides lift their fruit-laden heads. The stems of this tree are never straight; those of the areca-nut palm are always so.² Close to our hotel at Galle Face (about a mile from the harbour) is a grove of cocoanut palms, some almost touching our walls, others bending towards the waters which at high tide laved their roots. This grove

¹ "Local Guide."

² "He who can discover a straight cocoa, or a crooked areca palm, or a white crow, will never die."—*Native Proverb*.

is a favourite resort of crows, so numerous and so tame that they are evidently sacred. The true follower of Buddha never takes life.

Wide and well-metalled roads are quite a feature of the city, as well as of the island. The district is so level that it would be monotonous were there not a large lagoon-like lake of fresh water in the centre of the area. Barracks built *en échelon* for a large force, and with exercising grounds at hand, adjoin the lake.

Pettah is the name given to the native part of Colombo. Here are sights and sounds full of interest and amusement to the new-comer, though the locality is soon shunned by those whose sense of smell is acute. Here are Sinhalese, the chief proportion of the population, dark-brown in colour, with black, glossy hair, usually kept back by a tortoise-shell comb. Some are well clad, wearing usually a white jacket and a "comboy," *i.e.* a long skirt reaching to the ankles, not unlike a petticoat. Others simply twist their hair into a knot or let it fall loose on their shoulders; a waist-cloth is all their covering. These Sinhalese are often tall, but feminine in appearance, and indolent to the last degree; they love to loiter and smile and chatter.

In Pettah, too, are Tamils from the south-east of India, more sturdy in appearance, and wearing a turban as a rule. These are attracted by the prospect of profitable employment on the tea-plantations.

Here also are Moormen, copper-coloured descendants of Arabian traders, with shaven crowns and high straw hats, without a brim; they are comparatively few, but their energy and love of trade make their presence felt.

Ceylon has been called "the paradise of palms, pearls, and perfumes." Pearls, gems, and trinkets, are the special stock-in-trade of these Moormen. As soon as a ship arrives they are on board, engaged in the art of beguiling the innocent and simple-minded—an art in which they are adepts.

The markets in Pettah are crowded with country people who have come in "hackories," *i.e.* carts drawn by a single bullock, or in "bullock-bandies," *i.e.* large, palm-thatched carts, drawn by two bullocks of stout build and slower pace. The hair of the women is usually coiled at the back, but pins or gold ornaments are there instead of combs. Some of the latter have gold in their nostrils and around their necks. A dark skin sets off these ornaments better than a white one.

Both men and women generally chew the betel-leaf, the luxury of the lower orders, and on sale everywhere. It is very like our ivy. In the leaf a piece of areca nut and some lime from burnt shells are enclosed. The red colour of the mouth betrays the universal habit. Not a few "burghers," *i.e.* descendants of the Portuguese and Dutch colonists, as well as Eurasians, pass to and fro. They are all

dressed in European fashion, very often in white jackets and trousers, with white sun hats lined with green inside.

In one part of Pettah I noticed a crowd around a booth. Within was a full-sized figure of Abdul Hamid, Sultan of Turkey. The followers of Mohammed in the Island number about 220,000, including some of our Indian soldiers. The recent victories on the Grecian frontier, of the Crescent over the Cross, are awakening energies which we had hoped were dormant or dead.

While at Colombo I was so fortunate as to be on the jetty when the Ambassador from the Sultan of the Maldives brought his annual tribute of cowries and other gifts to the Governor, representing the Empress of India. A large body of native police, dressed in red and blue, were drawn up in line. Near them was the Lascorian guard (a relic of by-gone days) in red array, very like our beef-eaters at the Tower of London, holding lances of a bye-gone age, and discoursing shrill music by means of strange and ancient instruments. "The Ambassador came on shore" (says the *Ceylon Observer*) "amid an intermittent salute of guns from his own buggalow,¹ attended by Mr. Carimjee Jafferjee, Mr. Goodhamusin, and two or three other Maldivian grandees. He was received by Messrs. H. L. Dessanayaka and

¹ A buggalow, or baggala, is a two-masted vessel, trading in the Indian Ocean, from 200 to 250 tons burden.

D. G. Pieris, Mudaliyar of the Governor's Gate, Mr. P. G. Weerakoon, Mr. D. S. Senanayaka, Mr. S. L. M. Ismail Lebbe, Inspector Dessanayaka, P.C.,¹ Eknelligodda Dessawa, and many Sinhalese gentlemen.”² These quotations are given as an illustration in brief of the length of the names loved by some Sinhalese grandees.

There are about twenty Mudaliyars of the Governor's Gate. These are prominent native officials, and are described as native aides-de-camp to the Governor. Their official dresses are so gorgeous that the Ambassador's flowing yellow silk robe was nothing to them. On the head of each was an enormous tortoise-shell comb, resplendent in the sunshine, and said to be of great value. This is placed on the top of the knot, into which the hair is gathered ; whilst, behind, a semi-circular comb just below stretches from ear to ear. A dark blue cloth coat, with gold (or gilt) buttons, a white waistcoat with shining buttons, a large gold chain, a high shirt collar, and silk tie, adorn the upper person. But the silk *comboy*, falling from the waist to the feet, and of the richest patterns, creates a still more brilliant effect. The feet are in white stockings and patent-

¹ Police Constable.

² Miss Gordon Cummings, in her elaborate “Two Happy Years in Ceylon,” gives the sixteen names (taken from the official list) of one Mudaliyar, some enormously long. I am indebted to her for a partial description of the dress, and other details.

leather shoes. The belt or sash round one shoulder, holding a poignard or small sword, produces probably the greatest impression, as it is profusely adorned with gold and gems. A ruby shone very conspicuously in the centre of the belt worn by the person nearest to me. Their fingers glittered with jewels. Indeed, only an Eastern sun could do justice to such a display.

This stately procession was at length marshalled. Tom-tom beaters and trumpeters accompanied it to the Governor's house, making the streets re-echo with the noise. Coolies followed, bringing various presents of Maldivian wealth. The Ambassador, on arrival, was received by the Governor in state at the Government House. The tribute of cowries and a letter from H.M. the Sultan were produced and "graciously received" (as is said at Windsor), after which a conversation in Hindostanee followed.¹

¹ I gathered the following details from the printed particulars given at the Museum, Colombo:—

The Maldiv Islands extend from latitude 7° 0' 7" N. to 0° 42' S. The group is five hundred miles in length; some are mere sand-banks. The best are covered with cocoa-nut palms. The capital is Malé, four hundred miles from Colombo, with a population of about four thousand. The principal buildings are coral, roofed with plaited cocoa-nut leaves. The houses are of planks, roofed with tiles and corrugated iron. The dead are buried in the towns and gardens near the wells from which water is obtained. The place is said to be very unhealthy in consequence. The fortifications are in ruins. The people are passionately fond of art, and adorn everything. They make mats

Before leaving Colombo, I witnessed a scene which, I am told, is common enough in India, yet was quite new to me. The Hong-Kong and Shanghai Bank at 2.30 p.m. had probably forty or fifty black or nut-brown men close to the counter, and there were as many or more outside. Two Europeans only entered during the half-hour before closing, of whom I was one. A man, naked to the waist, marked with small-pox, his head and face completely shaven, brought a cheque book with no entries on the page which he presented. The Eurasian clerk hurled it back on presentation three or four times to him. At length some friend filled part of the cheque, but no figure was given (the man was close to me). Eventually a correct entry was made, but the clerk was obliged to complete the counterfoil. The man was probably a chattie, a contractor for labour, rather like a Chinese comprador. He probably wished to draw some money from the bank, yet had not learnt the proper method of proceeding.

of a high quality ; these are exported to Ceylon. They live also by fishing and cloth-weaving. They are, moreover, clever boat-builders and sailors. Their favourite amusements are swinging and wrestling ; their beds are constructed so as to swing. The people are described as timid, yet joyous. They are ruled by a Sultan. Their religion is that of Islam, but the women are neither secluded nor veiled. The islands are (as we have seen) tributary to Great Britain.

CHAPTER X.

KANDY AND THE HIGHER COUNTRY.

THE traveller who has only a day or two to spare will probably visit "Mount Lavinia," an elevation seven miles to the south of Colombo, well known for its large white hotel, a conspicuous object to mariners off the coast. He should drive, not go by train, as the trees, flowering shrubs, the people and their homes, which line the roadway, are full of interest. The road, too, is shaded! Some miles out are a Buddhist temple and a Dagoba,¹ with three large images of Buddha, and demons depicted in bright colours on the walls—demons specially appointed to torture evil-doers! But the crowds who come from every quarter are a warning. A white face in a Buddhist temple is a magnet sure to attract black and brown skins from all sides.

Mount Lavinia is remarkable chiefly for its palms, bending towards the sea, its outrigged canoes with their brown sails, and a ridge of rocks at some distance from the shore. These rocks, scarcely

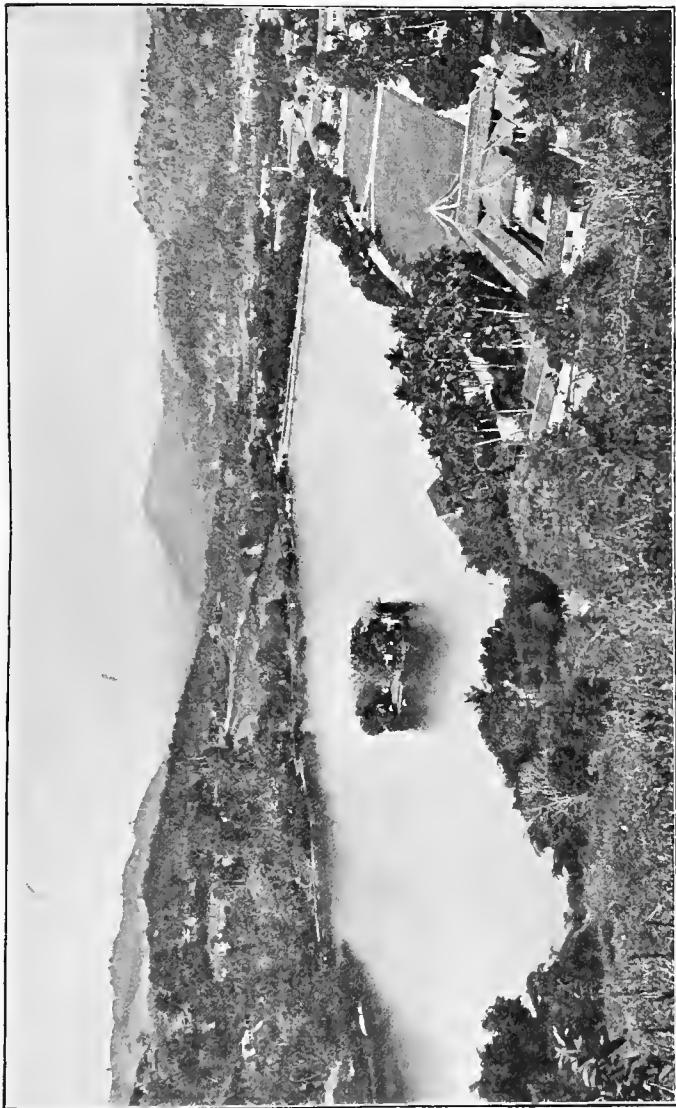
¹ A Dagoba is a circular structure, usually of brick or stone, containing relics of Buddha or some Buddhist saint.

perceptible, are high enough to keep away the sharks which infest the shore, so that bathers need not be alarmed.¹

If a visitor has time, he should certainly visit Kandy, the mountain capital. This is reached by the railway within a few hours, and for natural beauty, as well as its Buddhist temple and library, is most attractive. The line runs at first through paddy fields. Water buffaloes may be seen here and there trying to obtain food where it seems very scarce.

After a time we approach "The Valley of the Shadow of Death." This is the name given to the district near Ambepussa Station, about fifty miles from Colombo. The low-lying ground was so full of malaria at the time when the railway was being made that the coolies died by hundreds. Jungle fever laid low the European staff. At length it was found necessary to take all engaged in the work to and from Colombo, a daily journey of a hundred miles. Soon the line rises; the scenery of hill, dale, rock, and forest is charming. Before long we are at an elevation of seventeen hundred feet, running round the Allegalla Mountain, descending at length to Kandy, sixteen hundred feet above the sea.

¹ What these sharks often are may be gathered from some specimens in the museum at Colombo. Two deserters from a United States warship in the harbour tried recently, during our stay in Ceylon, to swim to the breakwater, and were drowned; their bodies were recovered, but one was horribly mangled by sharks.



KANDY, CEYLON.

The average temperature of Colombo is 81° , and as there is no great elevation, the place is always hot. The thermometer ranges from 72° at night, in January, to 89° in the day-time, during April. The latter is the hottest, the former the coolest month. The mercury in 1885 rose once in February to 95° . It has not sunk since 1880 below 65° .¹

It may then be imagined that Europeans long for the hills. Kandy, at a higher elevation, is, of course, cooler. A lake in the centre of a lovely amphitheatre of the hills is a refreshing feature. It was formed out of paddy fields by the last King of Kandy, who was deposed in 1815, and banished, with four queens for company, to Vellore, in Madras.

Sri Wikrema Singha was the last of a line whose combined reigns had covered a period of more than two thousand five hundred years; yet no one lamented his departure. His tyranny had been terrible. Round this lake is a drive of about three miles, the favourite resort of pallid Europeans. Here, too, are tennis-courts, and a club close to the lake. Amid the hills around are various drives, offering views of singular beauty. The stranger who is out with the dawn and ascends to the higher grounds will, I should hope, never forget them.

But to the Buddhist and lover of antiquities the Dalada Maligawa, the "Temple of the Tooth," is perhaps the greatest attraction. This tooth in by-

¹ "Local Guide."

gone days drew multitudes of pilgrims from all parts, though Ceylon before British rule had scarcely any roads.

The story of this "Tooth" would fill a volume. It is said to have been one of Buddha's four eye-teeth, recovered from the funeral pyre when he was cremated at Kusinaga, a hundred miles to the north of Benares.¹ It has had sixteen temples erected in its honour. Kings have ransomed it; embassies have been sent out to do it homage. In 1560 the Portuguese captured this or another tooth at Jaffna, to the north of Ceylon, whither it had been sent for security. They despatched it to Goa, and refused a large sum, offered by the King of Pegu, for its ransom. The Archbishop of Goa then, with his own hands, in the presence of the Portuguese Viceroy and many others, bruised it to powder, burnt the ashes, and hurled the remains into the river. But a new tooth was formed in the heart of a lotus blossom, and, behold, it is in the temple at Kandy!

The natives say that whoever holds the tooth has the right to govern. In 1815 this precious relic came into the possession of the British, and they refused offers for it from the King of Burmah. But in the insurrection of 1818, the priests carried

¹ See Miss G. Cummings' "Two Happy Years in Ceylon," vol. i., p. 309. Her long and carefully-prepared book has furnished me with many details.

it off; fortunately for us it was re-captured. The Kandians thereupon gave up the contest.

The temple, with the library adjoining, is an interesting illustration of Kandian architecture. It is of no great size, but uniform in character. Square pillars support the roof of the octagonal library, which is higher than the temple. There is a passage round between the pillars and the temple, lightening the appearance of an otherwise heavy-looking building. There are figures of elephants and images of Buddha; his tooth is concealed in a very secret chamber. Flowers are almost always there, as in every Buddhist temple; worshippers must not come without a gift. The delicate blossoms of the cocoa and areca palms, the temple flower, or awaria, the champak, or *sahu* (as the Sinhalese call it), with its sweet yellow flower, a common temple offering of India, the lovely allemanda, the lotus blossom, and others, are often there. Small flags, too, were flying outside at the time of my visit, recalling the praying flags of Thibet. But I did not notice any praying wheels. The library is famous rather for its precious Pali manuscripts than for the number of its volumes. Pali is the language in which Buddha preached. It is therefore held in special veneration by the many millions supposed to be his followers. These manuscripts are on long, narrow strips of palm-leaf, about two and a half inches wide, twenty inches long. The writing has been done by a style

of which a specimen is shown by the priest in charge. These leaves (or olas,¹ as they are called), after the letters had been scratched on them, were smeared with dark oil, coloured with charred gum, so that the letters were darkened, and the leaves preserved from insect life. Books are made up of layers of these leaves. The binding in some cases is handsomely adorned or painted. There is also a collection of European books on Ceylon.

Buddhist priests are numerous at Kandy. It is said that Ceylon formerly supported sixty thousand of the saffron, or yellow-clad, order. There are two colleges here of the Siamese sect of Buddha. This sect admits the various Hindoo deities, such as Vishnu and Siva, as associates of Buddha. These priests throw their robe over the left shoulder (as Buddha is sometimes represented), the right arm and neck being left bare. The priests of the stricter (or Amarapoora) sect cover both their shoulders. The priests of both sects have their heads shaven. Thus yellow robes and shaven heads are a frequent feature of life in Kandy.

Some Hindoo temples likewise deserve notice, though treated with little care or reverence. The English church is a large one, and the religious zeal of various Christian communities is, happily, very manifest.

¹ Olas are usually strips of the palmyra palm, but the leaf of the talipot palm is said to be better.

Kandy, however, though higher than Colombo, is a very hot place. My hotel was in the midst of lovely palms, beneath which the carefully tended turf formed a charming feature. Sinhalese were, at intervals, whipping the high grass with stout twigs "to keep it down," as we say; others were looking on, helping the "workers" to waste their time. Yet when the temperature, soon after 10 a.m., is at 75° or 80°, who does not wish for a cooler clime? The governor has grand residences at Colombo and Kandy, a "cottage" only at Nuwara Eliya; he prefers the cool "cottage." The fire-flies at night are very interesting for a time; the snake-charmers¹ and conjurers are most amusing; yet the European soon longs for a more bracing atmosphere. Tame elephants may be seen about four miles from Kandy, lying down in the river enjoying the coolness of their watery bed, rising at their keeper's command, and readily obeying all his orders; but after one journey to and fro, under a blazing sun, one longs for a higher altitude!

Nuwara Eliya, the Simla of Ceylon, "the city of the open plain" (as the name means), is 6,200 feet above the sea, and easily accessible by rail. The line

¹ Snakes and reptiles are so common in Ceylon that they are found even in bungalows at Colombo. A cobra was in a friend's garden there recently. A tic polonga, said to be the most venomous reptile in the island, was killed in his stable. A planter told me he had killed two tic polongas on the verandah of his house.

from Kandy to Nanuoya (four miles from Nuwara Eliya) has been carried, at great cost, through a district which has been compared to a combination of Swiss and Welsh scenery. The mountains are higher than the Welsh, yet they cannot be compared to the snow-clad summits of Switzerland.

The chief features of the journey (besides the mountains) are the tea-plantations, with their bungalows and factories. Tea-plants may be seen on hill and dale. The care with which they are cultured, the absence of weeds, the skilfully arranged drains for carrying off storm-water, and at the same time supplying the roots with moisture, are gratifying proofs of British energy and enterprise. Tamils, recently arrived from South India, may be seen at some stations. Their tawny skins, gold ornaments, and bright dresses, are very attractive. Planters, or their managers, with white-brimmed hats and green silk beneath the brim, meet these arrivals, and conduct them to their quarters. Natives offer bananas, cakes, and the cocoa-nut, with its large supply of "milk." One end is split open with the hatchet, so that the thirsty European may drink. But Europeans are not numerous in these trains. Natives swarm around the stations and in the third-class carriages; there were three Europeans only in one train in which I travelled. Luggage vans are often attached to the trains, and, though there are engines at either end (as the gradient is so steep), the speed is very slow.



NUWARA ELIYA, CEYLON.

The longest tunnel in the island (six hundred and fourteen yards in length) is on this part of the line. An iron-girder bridge, with a span of a hundred and forty feet, enables the train to cross the Mahawelliganga. On one part of the line there is a "soda-water bottle curve," an appropriate name in a country where soda-water is in such request. In a course of three-quarters of a mile the line is only two hundred feet from the line below, though it has risen two hundred feet in traversing the curve.

The line is protected in some parts from the incursions of wild animals, stray cattle, and other foes, by aloes, which have often grown to a great size. But this protection is less needed now than formerly. The forests, which once sheltered the wild elephant, the sambur and other deer, leopards, jackals, monkeys, wild pigs, porcupines, and other animals, have almost disappeared. Tea plantations have in many cases been substituted. Wood, moreover, has been in great request for the tea factories, where a great amount is required for fuel. On many estates trees are being largely planted, and are quite a feature of the journey to the high country.

Nanuoya, where the train is left for Nuwara Eliya, is 5,292 feet above the sea level. A drive of four miles or more on an excellent road takes you a thousand feet higher. This "city of the open plain" is scattered over a wide area, and surrounded by mountains. It has a pretty sheet of water, rightly

called "Gregory's Lake," as Sir W. Gregory, a former governor, transformed a marsh through which a tiny river ran into a lake. By an artificial embankment the depth has been increased ; the water, too, has been stocked with fish. Carp and trout are now abundant, and are said to have sensibly lessened the mosquito plague.

The open valley reminded me of Grasmere, but it is on a larger scale. There are the usual cricket, tennis, golf, and race grounds. The horses galloping round the course between 6 a.m. and 8 a.m., prior to the annual races in February, are a very lively sight. These horses are chiefly "Gulf Arabs" from the Persian Gulf, Arabs from Arabia, or Australians. At Penang I had seen a long string of Australian horses belonging to the Sultan of Johore, and here met Australians again. Horses, like human beings, "do better" in these higher and cooler regions. They are carefully covered, just as warmer clothes are worn by their masters.

The sight of ladies warming themselves before a fire is a strange one in Ceylon, yet I was glad to find a fire in our hotel. Frost is not a novelty in these regions ; the thermometer rarely, if ever, rises over 72°. The weather in these higher altitudes is, I believe, often wet or misty. Mists were rolling the mountain sides during my visit to Nuwar'alia, as it is usually called.

Adam's Peak, 7,352 feet high, is the most famous

mountain in Ceylon. It is about fifty miles from Colombo, and, in clear weather, may be seen at a great distance. Its name to all the natives, of whatever faith they are, is Sri Pada, the Holy Foot. Buddhists, Hindoos, Mohammedans, all claim an interest in the "Holy Foot." Pilgrims, year after year, flock from all quarters, and worship on its summit. But Adam's Peak is not the highest mountain of the island. Close to my hotel at Nuwar'alia was a sign-board on a pole, with one word only on it, Pedro. Pedro is the form used for Pidurutalaga, the highest mountain, 8,295 feet above the mean sea level. The ascent (I speak from personal experience) is by no means difficult, and can easily be accomplished in less than two hours. The view, no doubt, on a fine day, is very extensive, but a dense mist and a cold wind soon drove me down again. Yet it is something for a sexagenarian to have ascended, on foot, the highest mountain in Ceylon.

CHAPTER XI.

THE BOTANICAL GARDENS.

ALL who wish to know Ceylon should not fail to devote some time and attention to the Botanical Gardens. They are probably among the best in the world. The chief one is at Pérádeniya, about four miles from Kandy. The official name is the Royal Botanic Garden. The greater part of the land was formerly a royal domain, belonging to the kings of Kandy. Remains of stone buildings have been found ; portions of carved stone pillars are still to be seen at different parts of the Garden, as well as an earth mound and ditch along the northern boundary.

The Garden at Pérádeniya is a hundred and fifty acres in area, and is surrounded almost entirely by the river Mahawelli. The land is undulating. In one direction across the river hills covered with forest-trees rise to a considerable height, and add greatly to its beauty. The average elevation above sea level is 1,540 feet. The climate is hot and moist, as is the case so often in Ceylon. But it is also equable. The

mean annual temperature is about 77° , December and January being the coolest months, April and May the hottest. Even in January (according to my experience) the weather may be very hot. The official guide, however, states that the thermometer in January has sometimes been below 60° .

The rainfall averages about eighty-seven inches. It is heaviest in October and November, and in June, when the north-east and south-west monsoons are in full force. Rain falls on about a hundred and fifty days out of the three hundred and sixty-five. The first three months in the year are the driest, but showers usually fall at intervals, even in those months.

This Garden dates from 1821, six years after Ceylon had been attached to the British Crown, and the last King of Kandy had been deposed. Some eminent men have, in the course of its history, had charge of it. In 1816 Sir Joseph Banks, President of the Royal Society, selected a Mr. Alexander Moon as curator of the small botanical garden in Slave Island, Colombo. Kew was the name given to this garden, and the place is still called Kew. But it was too contracted for his energy and ambition; moreover, it was liable to be flooded. So in 1821 he induced the Government to adopt the present site. He planned the roads, studied the flora, compiled, and in 1824 published, a catalogue of Ceylon plants, containing the botanical and native names

of 1,129 plants native to the island, as well as of 366 introduced and cultivated species. He formed a large herbarium of dried specimens, commenced a library, and started a series of coloured drawings of Ceylon plants. These drawings have been continued ever since, and are among the treasures of the Garden. Fever, unfortunately, carried off this remarkable man in 1825. Mr. George Gardener, F.L.S. (Director from 1844 to 1849), was eminent as a botanist, and Dr. Thwaites, F.R.S., for thirty years (1849 to 1880), obtained for the Garden a world-wide reputation. He was succeeded by Mr. Henry Trimen, F.R.S., who edited the present Hand Guide.¹ The present director is Mr. J. C. Willis, a graduate, I believe, of Cambridge.

The approach from Kandy is along a road on either side of which are numerous native dwellings and many fine specimens of tropical vegetation. But these cannot be compared with the noble trees which stand just at the entrance of the Gardens. On the grass plot is a splendid specimen of the Honduras mahogany, recalling the furniture once so popular, and even now highly valued. The eye is soon arrested by a grove of Assam indiarubber trees, planted in 1833. They are noble trees in appearance; their roots, too, rise above the ground and wander about in an amazing manner. The rubber forms a large export from Assam and Burmah

¹ Many details given here are from this handbook,

where the trees are carefully protected by the Indian Forest Department. These, however, are feeling the effect of age, being over sixty years old; their branches are decaying and dropping off.

On entering the gates, a grand array of palms attracts attention. Ceylon is not rich in *native* palms, but the collection in this garden is probably unrivalled. Here is the slender and upright yet elegant areca nut palm, whose stem has been well compared to an alabaster pillar. I regard it as the loveliest of its tribe. It appears most to advantage when growing close to the bending cooca-nut palm. The seed of this areca nut is placed with some lime, made usually from coral, in the leaf of a pepper (*Piper Betle*). Hence comes the name of betel, the luxury of the poorer classes in the East, as tobacco is in the West. Then there is the kitul, or jaggery palm, with leaves rather resembling the maiden-hair fern, bearing fruit only when it has reached a height of fifty feet or more. The effort is such that it is fatal to the tree. A coarse brown sugar, called jaggery, is obtained from the berries. Among these palms, *Livistona Australis* (Cabbage Palm of Australia) and the royal palm of Cuba (*Oreodoxa Regia*) particularly struck my fancy. Here, too, is a date palm, which, however, never flowers. Several specimens of the wild-date palm, or "Indi," of Ceylon, bear a black fruit which is scarcely edible. Here, too, is *Carludovica palmata* of Central America,

from which the Panama hats ("celebrated and expensive") are made. In other parts of the Garden are the fan palm from Mauritius, the Doum palm of Egypt, rattans, *i.e.* climbing palms, which mount to the top of the tallest trees by long tendrils set with grappling hooks. Their stems are several hundred feet long, and are the stems of commerce. Others worthy of notice are a very tall Macaw palm of Brazil and the West Indies, with a prickly stem, a vegetable ivory palm of Central America, a noble avenue of royal palms planted more than forty years, sago palms from Borneo (sago is the chief food of the people in many Malay islands), and a grand specimen, near the Museum, of the talipot palm. This last is regarded by many as the palm of palms. It is sometimes called the fan palm, as in the earlier years of its life it sends out only fan-shaped leaves. It flowers once only after it has reached its full height, and not before it is forty years old. The leaves, when the tree has attained twenty years, sometimes measure twenty-five feet from the base of the leaf to the outer edge of the fan!¹ The Alexandra palm of Queensland is described in the Hand Guide as "especially graceful, as befits its name." The "Tal" or Palmyra Palm, with its straight and stiff stem, must not be omitted, though it does not flourish

¹ Enthusiasts should read an excellent description of this "palm of palms" in Miss Gordon Cummings' "Two Happy Years in Ceylon," vol. i., chap. vi.

at Pérádeniya. "Toddy," as well as food, is obtained from this tree. The hard, black wood is invaluable for building, as white ants, the scourge of Eastern householders, will not usually assail it.¹ The coco-de-mer is also in the gardens. This is a double coconut. The fruit was found floating on the Indian Ocean, or on the shores of Ceylon, centuries before the tree was known.² It grows only in one or two islands of the Seychelles group, where it is now protected. The growth is so slow that a single leaf only is sent up annually, yet the tree reaches the height of a hundred feet! The visitor should by no means fail to notice the fruit in the Museum.

After the palms, the bamboos are to me the most striking feature of this wonderful garden. The chief kinds are the giant bamboo of Burmah, the largest known, and a very hard kind from Java, much used in that island for building. There is also the male or solid bamboo of South India and Malaya, described as a very useful kind. The rapidity of growth of these bamboos is almost beyond belief. A planter assured me that in his hot, steaming district he could see his bamboos grow, and the statement is credible. The culms appear during the rains in June and July, and grow at the rate of one foot in twenty-four hours. Some bamboos attain the height of a hundred

¹ In Hong-Kong dockyard I saw the bowsprit of a war-vessel rendered useless by white ants.

² So says Mr. Trimen, in the Hand Guide.

feet and a diameter of nine inches. Planted usually near the water, they take advantage of their opportunities. Each clump usually contains about sixty stems or more, all springing from one root. The purposes for which the bamboo is used are so numerous that it is often called the iron of the East!¹

There is, of course, a fernery. The ground is shaded by trees, and tiny streams supply the moisture required. There is, too, a fern-house devoted to ferns in pots. Tree ferns abound, and there are many kinds of ferns, native and exotic, on the beds and

¹ In the Journal of the Royal Horticultural Society, January, 1899, is a most interesting, and, as far as its compass allows, exhaustive paper, "On the Economic Uses of Bamboos," by Mr. A. B. Freeman Mitford, C. B. He says: "It is worth the trouble of a voyage to Ceylon to see the beauty of the Péradeniya Gardens. But in that paradise, where all the treasures and wonders of the tropical flower world are gathered together in wildest wealth of colour and form, nothing is more striking than this huge (Burmese) bamboo (*Dendrocalamus giganteus*). Picture to yourself great clumps of a hundred or more canes, from twenty to thirty inches round, and a hundred and thirty-five feet high, spurning the earth in their heavenward flight, and bending their graceful heads on all sides, like great showers of sky-rockets hustled into mid-air." With regard to the manifold uses to which the bamboo is put, he quotes the saying of a Chinese poet: "How can I exist a single day without this gentleman?" There is only one plant which divides with the bamboo "the honour of being the best friend of mankind," viz. the cocoa-nut palm. And the writer quoted cites from Percival the case of a ship which, some half-century ago, came from the Maldive Islands to Galle, "entirely built, rigged, provisioned, and laden with the produce of the cocoa-nut palm."



BAMBOOS, WITH YOUNG SHOOTS, IN THE PÉRÁDENIYA GARDENS, CEYLON.

borders of the water-courses. The sight would delight an enthusiast.

There is also a special conservatory for orchids, with a roof of coir netting, so as to admit rain, but not the full sunshine. There are about 350 species of orchids, obtained chiefly from European growers. But those who have seen the orchids in blossom at the London shows will be disappointed with the collection in Ceylon. The climate is not adapted to the cultivation of cool orchids or of such as need a very high temperature.

Such a feast, however, of good things is provided elsewhere that no one should grumble. For heart complaint there is a climbing plant, *Strophanthus hispidus*, from West tropical Africa; for neuralgia, the fern *Epipremnum mirabile*, the "Tonga" of Fiji. Indiarubber has become scarce and dear. Here are the three kinds, admitted to be the best for the production of the rubber required: *Hevea brasiliensis*, giving Para rubber, regarded as the best sort; *Manihot Glaziovii*, producing Ceara rubber; and *Castilloa elastica*, yielding Central American and Panama rubber. These rubber trees do better in a lower elevation, with more heat. They then produce as good rubber as in their native countries in South America. They require usually about eight years growth before they can be "tapped." There are also nutmeg, pepper, vanilla, fibre plants, and other useful varieties without end.

A "Bó" tree (*Ficus religiosa*), planted by the Prince of Wales in 1875, must not pass unnoticed. Buddha sat under a "Bó" tree during his meditations, and the tree is held sacred by his followers. A "Bó" tree is always planted near Buddhist temples. A python is said to live in the "Bó" tree at the Temple of the Tooth in Kandy.¹ The "Bó" is the "Peepul" of India. A Ná, or iron-wood tree, was planted by the Tsarevitch of Russia in 1891. The wood of the Ná is very valuable. Prince Ferdinand of Austria in 1893 planted an asoka-tree, famous for its sweet-scented orange flowers, and Prince George of Greece a *Brownea grandiceps* in 1891. These are all at no great distance from each other.

Some other trees must not pass unnoticed. *Grevillea robusta* from Queensland, and various eucalypti from Australia may be seen. These are planted in hundreds or thousands in the upper country. The former is very quick-growing, and is useful for fire-wood and stakes; the latter drain moist soil, and are also quick growers in suitable soil. But Pérádeniya is too hot and humid for them. The Jak tree, universal in Ceylon, is here. It produces the largest of all edible fruits. Some weigh as much as sixty pounds; they are found all over the tree. They are often offered for sale outside cottages. The seeds are

¹ At Amurádhapura, the ancient capital of Ceylon, is a Bó tree said to have been planted B.C. 288; it is described as the oldest historical tree in the world.

used by Europeans in curry, as well as by the natives. Elephants greatly appreciate the fruit in its entirety. The Champak of India¹ (the Sapu of the Sinhalese, who present its sweet yellow flowers in Buddha's temples), cacao, or chocolate trees, teak and satin-wood, famous for their timber, the damba, with crimson and orange foliage, the candle-tree with fruit just like a tallow candle, *Amherstia nobilis*, from British Burmah, one of the most beautiful of flowering trees, and countless others, repay the visitor a thousandfold.

Ficus altissima must not be forgotten. The "flying foxes" were reposing on that tree as I passed. They suspend themselves by their claws, sleeping all day, rocked to and fro by the wind. At sunset they awake, and go foraging for fruit. They are really large bats, with a skin like leather, and often measuring four feet from tip to tip of their wings. The red hair on their wings has perhaps given them the *sobriquet* of flying foxes.

A visit to the museum should by no means be omitted. There are about three hundred species of the woods of Ceylon, cut into blocks fifteen inches high, with the bark still on. There are also large

¹ *Michelia Champaca*. Rather like a small magnolia; one of the sweetest-scented and most favourite flowers of the East. Shelley refers to it in his "Indian Serenade"—

"The Champak odours fail,
Like sweet thoughts in a dream."

blocks of choice timber, such as satin-wood, ebony, teak, ná, and the very scarce calamander, highly prized for cabinet work. In other rooms are such products as gums, cocoa, vanilla, and fibres. There are also a laboratory for botanical research, a herbarium, and a library, well furnished and complete.

But the island varies so in altitude, rainfall, and temperature that trees and shrubs which may thrive at one place fail in another. Cinchona and the rubbers, for instance, do not flourish at Pérádeniya.¹ At Hakgala Garden, 5,800 feet above the sea, six miles to the east of Nuwara Eliya, the climate is more moist and more cool. Cedars, araucarias, European fruit-trees, such as peaches, plums, apples, and pears, are grown. This garden was opened in 1860 as a cinchona nursery.

There is another very useful garden at Henaratgoda, between Colombo and Kandy. This is a completely tropical garden, just above the sea level, and in a hot, steaming climate which rarely varies. A planter, whose estate is at about the same altitude, with an average rainfall (for two years) of two hundred and ten inches, and an average temperature of 80°, told me that his tea-plants were washed away by the

¹ The rise of the rupee to 1s. 4d. from 1s. 1d. makes a serious difference to the tea-planter. Tea is sold for gold, but wages are paid in silver. The planter receives fifteen rupees only at 1s. 4d. for £1; when the rupee is worth 1s. 1d. only, he receives eighteen. He must then look also to other industries (such as rubber-growing) for a livelihood.

rains, and he must try something else. Here is the help he and others need. Vegetation is far more luxuriant here than at a higher altitude, and rubbers especially thrive. Pepper, gamba, kola-nut, and Para rubber likewise do well.

Two other gardens are maintained by the Government. One is at Anurádhapura, ninety miles north of Kandy. The rainfall is fifty-four inches only, and of this only half is in the last quarter. The short rainy season is like that of the Carnatic and Coromandel coast. Here such tropical plants, as dislike continuous or excessive moisture, are more likely to do well. This garden dates from 1883.

The fifth garden is at Badulla, on the eastern side of the island, 2,200 feet above the sea. The climate here is drier than on the western side. The rainfall is less than eighty inches, and the average temperature is about 73°.

The lessons to be learnt from the experience of all these gardens, if properly placed before the public, ought to be invaluable to the present and future planters in Ceylon.

CHAPTER XII.

FOREST CONSERVANCY IN CEYLON.

AFFORESTATION and the management of woods are an art on which Englishmen certainly cannot pride themselves. Sir John Lubbock, it is true, has brought the subject before the notice of Parliament on more than one occasion. The Scotch, so often in advance of their fellow-citizens in the South, some years ago held in Edinburgh an exhibition of forestry which attracted considerable notice. It is, I believe, a fact that many woods in England are a loss to their owners, although, in other cases, by skilful management they are a source of profit. What our orchards in England are may be gathered from Mr. Iggulden's "Wasted Orchards of England."¹ He was deputed by the Editor of the *Gardener's Magazine* to report on English orchards and his report is by no means a flattering one.

But in "Greater Britain" there is often more energy and less "old fogeyism." India has had its forestry department now for many years, and Ceylon followed suit after no great interval. There is a

¹ Price 6d. *Gardener's Magazine*. 148, Aldersgate Street, E.C.

school of forestry at Dehra Dūn, in the north of India, to which a few students from Ceylon are sometimes sent. India, indeed, has conferred a special benefit on Ceylon by allowing one of her experienced forest officers, Mr. A. F. Broun, from South India, to accept the responsible and very arduous position of Conservator of the Forests, as the Director of the Department is called. Mr. Broun is the son of an eminent Scotch astronomer, and his mother was one of a nation (the French) far in advance of us in their knowledge of forest management. Yet the task before him was well nigh a hopeless one.

Ceylon is almost as large as Ireland. The rainfall in some parts averages about 36 inches, in others it is nearer 360 inches. The altitude ranges from zero to 8,300 feet above the level of the sea. There is, of course, a corresponding variation in the flora of the isle, and accurate knowledge is essential to any success. The means of communication in some parts, although the main roads are excellent, are very scanty. Many districts are malarious ; and one of Mr. Broun's greatest difficulties has been the constant breakdown of his staff, from fever, pneumonia, and other ailments. The forest officers are particularly liable to fever, as their occupation compels them at times to camp out, to expose themselves to all weathers, as well as to visit unhealthy areas. The Government agents, *i.e.* the collectors of the Revenue, do not always see matters in the same

light as the forest officers, and for some years the friction between them was considerable.

But the greatest of all difficulties, by no means overcome as yet, was a strange custom called Chena, or Héna, by which the forests of the island have, in not a few places, been almost destroyed. By it many thousand acres of forest have been reduced to mere abandoned bush land, and the legal difficulties that have followed in its train have upset all the courts of the country.¹

The injury that was being inflicted on the forests by this native custom was evidently recognised by the Governor, Sir Henry Ward, as in 1858 he appointed Mr. J. R. Gordon Cumming as Chena Inspector. But a single individual can do little or nothing towards checking an old native custom. Even now, although the foresters and the Forest Department date back for a considerable time, the evil is rampant, and requires constant supervision and frequent prosecutions to keep it under control.

Chena is the system by which the people of a district cut down the timber over an area of a hundred acres or more of forest, and proceed to burn the land prior to planting it. They then fence it off, apportion various parts to the families of a district, and sow various crops, such as the hill-paddy,

¹ So writes my friend, Mr. F. Lewis, one of the chief assistant conservators—the only one at present who has charge of two provinces.

millet, and especially plantains. The last exhaust the ground seriously, and after two or three crops have been harvested, other timber is cut down, and a fresh soil cultivated after the native fashion. On the abandoned ground there soon grows up in such a soil and so moist a climate a mass of jungle almost impenetrable, fit only as a lair for wild beasts, or to provide food for birds. Creepers, and especially *lantana*, cover the places where noble trees, many of great age, once lifted their proud heads. This *lantana* is said to have been introduced as an ornamental shrub. It bears an orange- and rose-coloured blossom, and its black berries are beloved by birds, who, of course, carry them elsewhere; but its introduction to Ceylon has been disastrous. It must be rooted out before fresh trees are planted.

The planters, as well as the natives, are not free from the charge of felling valuable timber too indiscriminately. When the coffee-plants were attacked by a fungus which proved fatal to the industry, tea was quickly substituted. But tea requires a factory and firing. Forests were laid low to meet these wants. Happily the Government intervened and saved the forests on the higher grounds, that the rainfall might not be affected. Large numbers of gum-trees from Australia and *Grevillea* from Queensland may now be seen on most of the tea estates.

The official reports of the Forest Department for the last few years are cheerful reading, as they prove

that decided progress, in spite of endless difficulties, is being made. "Chena" is being checked, and the villagers are learning better systems of cultivation. The reconstruction of the village tanks, of the Giant's Canal, and of other important works, has proved a boon beyond all price to the Sinhalese. With an ample supply of water in almost every direction, there is now no excuse for the destruction of good timber, nor for converting good land into scrubby jungle. Rice can be grown where millet and other inferior grains were raised. But a custom in the East does not die out easily, especially if it encourages laziness. The Sinhalese are essentially a lazy people, and nothing but the strong arm of the law and frequent prosecutions can stop their love of "chena." "Large areas," says Mr. Broun, "are still rendered barren by this wasteful process. A sea of thorny scrub stretches right across a very large district. Vast talawas of illuk grass¹ take the place of chenas." In outlying districts, small hamlets will destroy square miles of magnificent forest for a crop of kurakkan² or gingelly.³

¹ *Talawas of illuk grass.* Talawa is a Sinhalese name for lands generally all covered with grass. Illuk is a coarse grass to which the natives often set fire, thereby endangering forest-trees.

² Kurakkan is a grain usually grown in chena land by the natives for food. The seed is like clover, out of which a coarse meal is obtained, and some leather-like cakes are made from the meal.

³ Gingelly is a grain usually grown in chena, producing oil and soon exhausting the soil.

On the other hand, he quotes from the Report of the Assistant Conservator of the Western Province (Mr. F. Lewis). "I have had opportunities of visiting the more remote parts of the Provinces where Chena culture once existed, and it is most satisfactory to record that, though this wasteful system has been done away with, the people have not suffered. On the contrary, fields which would have been swamps, had Chenas been allowed, are now cultivated and *manured*. People who lived on, and poisoned themselves and their children by eating, kurakkan, now eat rice, and look far more healthy than their sickly neighbours on the Chena lands; while the solid structure of their dwellings points to permanent residence, instead of the wigwam life that characterises Chena cultivation. The parangi-stricken¹ condition of the people in the Chena districts is another evidence in favour of reducing kurakkan cultivation to a minimum."

The area of forests under the charge of the Department at the end of 1896 embraced 5,338,497 acres, or 8,341·38 square miles. The area at the end of 1883 was 2,162,113 acres, or 3,378·14 square miles. These are divided into Reserved Forests, finally

¹ Parangi, or karayo, is a loathsome kind of leprosy found in fever- or poverty-stricken districts. Miss Gordon Cummings says that wherever there has been restoration of the ancient tanks and a bountiful supply of water provided, this awful disease disappears.

proclaimed in the *Government Gazette*, and Proposed Reserved Forests (first notice given in the *Government Gazette*), and other Crown Forests. The increase in area, it will be seen, is considerable, but alterations and additions necessarily occur, especially as Chena culture disappears, and the country becomes better known. Mr. Broun resolutely objects to small plantations, often at long intervals from each other. They cannot be supervised properly with the small staff at his command. It is useless to plant orchards in England unless they can be cultivated and protected from attack: it is just as useless to plant trees in Ceylon unless they can be cared for and watched. The Sinhalese are often expert thieves, and probably see no special right of possession on the part of the Crown, so that the prosecutions and compositions, *i.e.* private arrangements for offences against the Forest Laws or ordinances (as they are called), are numerous. In 1896 the total number of cases was 3,117 (prosecutions and compositions). Of these 276 were for unauthorised removal, and 848 for illicit Chena.

The formation and up-keep of cart roads, bridle paths, and inspection paths through the forests is no slight matter in such a country as Ceylon. Bridges have sometimes to be made and kept in repair. The roads in December, 1896, were eighty-one miles in length; the bridle paths, thirty-eight; the inspection paths, thirty-three—a hundred and fifty-

two miles in all. The total charges for these during 1896 was 2,605 rupees—about £173.

The felling of the timber that still remains, requires close supervision, otherwise the best woods would be soon exhausted. The calamander (*Diospyros quæsita*), regarded as the most handsome of Ceylonese woods, a rich brown-yellow, highly valued for cabinet work, is now so scarce that it is difficult to obtain even seeds of it. Milla (*Vitex altissima*) had the largest sale in 1896 of the principal species; halmilla (*Berrya ammonilla*) came next, ordered largely by the Government of India for railway purposes; then palu and munamal (*Mimusops hexandra*, and *elengi*) then ná (*Mesua ferrea*); the iron-wood tree; satin-wood, for which there is a great demand in England, next. Of the auxiliary species, there was a great demand for hal (*Vateria acuminata*), which produces an excellent copal, or white Damnar resin,¹ and hora, both natives of Ceylon, the latter peculiar to the lower forests. Firewood has a large sale, and charcoal brings in a considerable return. There is now an improved method of burning it in pits or kilns, and one brewery at Nuwara Eliya takes at times six tons per month.

How is all the timber and firewood conveyed? The cost of transport is only one of the many difficulties of the Department. Wire shoots, some as much as a mile long, bring down the timber by

¹ See "Hand Guide to Botanic Gardens," page 17.

gravitation from the higher ground. They are also in use in the tea estates for the conveyance of the leaves in baskets to the lower ground. The one at Hatton, a well-known railway station in the higher country, is three-quarters of a mile long. It was put up in 1896 at a cost of 533 rupees—about £35. Bulls and buffaloes in pairs draw timber-carts and sledges ; and an annual report is made respecting “Rajah,” the one elephant attached to the Department. He is employed at one of the timber depots, and is described as about fifteen years old (in 1896), six feet six inches high, in good health, and likely soon to be valuable. Evidently a help-meet for him is desired, but “pannikkans” could not be found to catch one. “Pannikkans” is the name given to natives who decoy and catch wild elephants.

What is the chief work connected with the forests ? Reference has been made to the roads and paths. Boundaries must also be clearly marked. A return of boundaries is given every year. Squares are cut in trees, and the latter marked in white on a black ground. Stone pillars are sometimes erected at the corners of Chenas. Thus the plea of ignorance cannot be put in by pilferers and trespassers. There is, however, still more important work. Creepers need to be constantly kept down, if trees are to do well. Dead, “suppressed,” and stunted trees must be taken out. Low-crowned, “suppressed” trees, which check the growth of seedlings, must be re-

moved. "Improvement-fellings," as they are called, must be made. These fellings are really clearings: branches out of place or excessive in number must be cut off; inferior trees, which obstruct the growth of useful seedlings, must be cut out; crooked saplings of valuable species cut back to encourage the growth of vigorous shoots.

In the earlier days of the Department, considerable labour was spent in clearing the ground entirely of trees, creepers, and weeds, and then replanting. Experience, however, has proved that "improvement-fellings" and creeper-cutting are of more importance. The area of the forests has been enlarged, and it is thought wise now to improve the present plantations rather than create new forest-areas. The number of trees, however, which have been planted even recently is very great. The greatest care is taken to provide proper shelter and protection, even before the seeds or the young trees are put in the ground. In the Report of 1896, it is stated that several acres have been planted with *Inga saman* to serve as nurses for calamander as soon as seed can be obtained. *Jak* is also planted to shelter other trees, as well as on its own account. Twenty-six acres at one place were planted with the Para rubber. The sides of a stream were planted with a yellow bamboo (*Bambusa vulgaris*), for which there is a great demand. In another district 23,750 young trees were planted, 1,610 in a second, 24,116 in a

third. In 1893, 185,758 plants were put out at one place.

Whence come all these young trees? The forests of Ceylon are not "gregarious," as most are in Europe, India, and Australia. A "gregarious" forest is one in which all the trees are of one species, and there is not more than one such forest in Ceylon. No one kind of tree covers an extensive area. Thus seedlings of different kinds of trees in this moist and fertile soil soon spring up and are utilised. Small nurseries, too are made as occasion may require. Seed, in many cases, is sought and sown. So valuable is the seed of the Para rubber that in 1896 three thousand seeds were sold at eight rupees (10s. 6d.) per thousand. The Department has been planting this tree for some years, and is now beginning to tap the "suppressed," but not the "dominating" trees, as they are called in the Report of 1896.

Many of the details supplied in the Reports relative to the trees, some learnt only after sharp experience, are very interesting to any one fond of trees. *Eucalyptus globulus* grows frequently to the height of forty feet; then, if the roots touch the rock, it dies of canker. *Eucalyptus robusta* and *Acacia decurrens* are strong growers, and do well. Teak nurseries have been formed in several places. In Travancore (South India) this tree thrives well up to three thousand feet, and it may also thrive in

Ceylon. The tamarind (*Tamarindus indica*), abundant in Ceylon, was planted in 1893; but as the growth of trees is now carefully measured, its slow growth will in future be a fatal objection.

Grevillea robusta, from Queensland, is very largely planted, but never thrives on a slope where it suffers from a heavy wash. There are many such slopes in Ceylon. *Eucalyptus robusta* and *Grevillea* are recommended for altitudes between two and three thousand feet. Jak (*Artocarpus integrifolia*) does well at two thousand five hundred feet if pigs and hares can be kept away; del (*Artocarpus nobilis*) does splendidly at lower elevations; and damba (*Eugenia species*), does well on the higher or lower fields.

But forest enemies are innumerable. *Eucalyptus robusta* and *Acacia decurrens* are browsed down by sambur deer. The deer, too, damage other trees, and bark them. Elephants, in some districts, make their presence known. The red (barking) deer pay too much attention to the rubber-trees. The large-leaved mahogany- and satin-trees are selected by spotted deer for rubbing velvet off their horns. The jak-trees are attacked by porcupines and moose-deer, hares and rats. Buffaloes occasionally take their turn, and goats when they get their chance. "Borers" attack the mahogany-roots; cattle sometimes break in—barbed wire is suggested. Villagers, too, have been known to carry off doors and windows!

Fires often do great damage, destroying, for instance, large numbers of teak-trees. Workmen, again, sometimes will not enter a forest because it is the abode of devils. The belief in demons is almost universal in Ceylon.

Yet in spite of innumerable and never-ending difficulties, the Forest Department of Ceylon, under Mr. Broun, is making good progress, and laying a good foundation for the future. A School of Forestry for subordinate officers has been established at Colombo in connection with the School of Agriculture, and there will henceforth be a larger number of competent and trained officials. The deficit of early years is already changed into a surplus. Very many years must elapse before the forests of Ceylon can be what they have been, yet every year will show some progress; and the good work that Mr. Broun and his colleagues have done and are doing, will, let us hope, never be forgotten.

CHAPTER XIII

CEYLON PRISONS.

WHAT are the end and object of imprisonment? Questions connected with punishment are always full of difficulty. A well-known British "weekly" devotes a column or more every issue to a list of cases in which various magistrates have seemingly done too much or too little. Even judges on the bench do not always satisfy the critics. Penology, both as a science and an art, has by no means attained perfection.

A study of the Ceylon Prison Reports brings out the fact that judges there, as elsewhere, fail sometimes to mete out that measure of punishment which is absolutely necessary if crime is to be kept in check. Mr. F. R. Ellis, late Inspector-General of Prisons, quotes a case in which a man had seriously injured and nearly killed a foreman in a large firm for which both were working, because the latter had reported him for defective work ; yet the punishment inflicted was a fine only.¹

Mr. Ellis (now promoted, I believe, to a high

¹ Ceylon Prison Report, 1894.

position in the Ceylon Government) discusses this question of the end and object of punishment with great ability. He urges that judicial officers should lay down in their own minds certain fixed principles with reference to the apportionment of punishment. The systems, he says, on which sentences are passed are much the same in all countries, viz. the haphazard, the expiatory, and the preventive.

The first, the haphazard system, is based on no principle at all, and is especially injurious in a country like Ceylon. The British public take the greatest interest in their own courts. Public opinion at once notes and reprimands any serious mistake on the part of magistrates or judges. The case is very different in Ceylon. Mistakes there have a serious influence for evil. The judge's temper or digestion makes a vast difference under the haphazard system. Any doubt about the justice of the verdict is allowed to affect the sentence.

The expiatory system is based on the principle "an eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth." It works almost entirely with a view to the past. The prisoner's guilt, when sentence is passed, is estimated mainly by the value of the property stolen. The prisoner cannot repay or replace, so must expiate his time in prison.

The preventive or (to use the more ordinary term) the deterrent, system insists that when suffering is inflicted, it shall be done, not with the view of extinguishing a fictitious debt owed to abstract

justice, but in the reasonable hope that some benefit to the individual or to the community will be the result. The exact nature of the benefit expected should be clearly before the mind of the court, and be the main guide in passing sentence. Is the object of the sentence to deter the prisoner himself, to deter others, or to protect the public? The true object of punishment is too often overlooked. The true end of punishment is neither expiation, nor retaliation, but (says Mr. Ellis) prevention.¹

This deterrent punishment is evidently the guiding principle of the responsible Prison Authorities in Ceylon. I was fortunately enabled to visit two of the chief prisons in the island : one at Welikada, close to Colombo, where the daily average of convicted prisoners in 1896 was four hundred and eighty-eight, and where there is, I believe, accommodation for seven hundred ; the other at Kandy, which can now receive four hundred. Mr. H. Lloyd, the Superintendent, took me over the former, and Mr. Phillips, the Superintendent, showed me the chief secrets of the Kandy jail. I have to thank these gentlemen for much information and kindness. They are both believers in the principle of deterrent punishment.

¹ When men are hanged, does not the principle of expiation come in as well as of prevention? In 1894, 23 men were hanged in Ceylon ; in 1895, 22 ; in 1896, 25. They expiated their crimes, and (let us hope) deterred others from that murderous use of the knife, too common in the island.

One feature in these prisons is so different from what I had seen at Singapore that the thought occurred at once, Where are the irons? A very large proportion of the prisoners at Singapore are Chinese. Of 3,334 received in the native prison during 1896, 2,993 were Chinese.¹ These are very different from the Sinhalese, Tamils, and Burghers of the Ceylon prisons. The Chinese are adepts at forming secret societies, and shrink from nothing if they are likely to succeed. The Sinhalese are a much more manageable and milder race. The Tamils, though more industrious, are not difficult to control. The irons which the prisoners at Singapore wear when first admitted are so light and well-burnished that they look almost ornamental! If the prisoner conducts himself well, they are in due course removed.

The next feature was the extraordinary absence of European warders. There are some Eurasians on the staff, but the great majority of the warders are natives. Major Firminger, the Superintendent of the Convict Establishments for Ceylon, says, in his Report for 1896, that in 1890 the European staff consisted of one superintendent, two assistants, three first-class jailors, and one second-class, whereas now there are only one superintendent, one assistant, and one European jailor. Happily there are barracks

¹ The races and numbers were as follows: Hokkien, 1,453; Cantonese, 530; Teo chew, 574; Kheh, 172; Hailam, 264; total, 2,993. These five races speak different dialects.

both at Colombo and Kandy, so that the aid of the military could be invoked, should occasion require.

At Welikada I was first conducted to the quarter assigned to female prisoners. Here were all the women committed to prison at the time of my visit, from the whole island. A part of one prison out of the twenty-two jails in Ceylon suffices for all the female offenders. The daily average of men in prison in 1896 was 1,975; of women, 21. The comparison between the East and the West is not flattering to our civilisation. The women were under the charge of two female warders, and were most of them working together making garments. They were expected, perhaps required, not to talk; a serious punishment no doubt to the chattering Sinhalese.

But the chief feature, and one that I was anxious to see, is a new form of punishment, which at present seems so great a success that it is sure to be imitated elsewhere. Its invention is ascribed to Mr. Ellis, but the superintendents have no doubt assisted in making it work so well. It is known as "pingo," the name given to the yokes so universal in the East for carrying burdens. These pingoes are often made of the kitul, or jaggery-palm, as the wood is pliable, light, and strong. But some pingoes that I saw in the prisons are apparently bamboos. The length of the yokes is from six to eight feet. Equal weights are hung from either side of the shoulder by cords from each end of the pingo.

There has been the usual difference of opinion in Ceylon about the best methods of punishment. A scanty diet, solitude, corporal punishment are all objectionable in some ways. If a Sinhalese can shirk work, he will do so. He prefers idleness on twelve ounces of bread *per diem* to work with a full diet of rice and curry. "He must be a clever man," said an old resident, "who can make the Sinhalese work." But with the pingo a man cannot escape or evade work. A long shed of no great width and open at the sides has accommodation usually for sixty prisoners. Some open woodwork runs down the centre of the shed, so that the men can see their fellows. Each has to carry forty pounds, twenty in each scale, at a distance of five feet from the man in front. With one hand he keeps the pingo on his shoulder, with the other he holds a short string, or trace. This is fastened to a rope. The rope runs through two pulleys, which are fixed at two ends of the shed. The rope goes round with the prisoners, and no man can avoid doing the same distance in the same time as the others, unless he falls out of the line. Sharp punishment would soon teach him better if he did. If he attempts to walk at a slower pace, the man behind treads on his heels. If he deserves special punishment, the weight is increased to fifty pounds. A well-conducted prisoner is chosen to act as leader, and make the pace. His burden is thirty pounds, and as he completes each

round, walking up perhaps fifty yards each way, he moves an indicator, and moves it again when he returns to the starting point. Sand-glasses and other aids enable the officers to test the pace and the distance.

The prisoners walk and carry these weights for a spell of four hours, then have a rest in their cells. They walk subsequently another eight miles, making sixteen in all each day. Some suffer at first from sore shoulders, but these are soon cured. The exercise in the open air (under cover) keeps them in good health, though the diet is penal, and the lowest given. The sight of their fellow-prisoners probably has a healthy influence, although they cannot talk. This careful exaction of hard, continuous, monotonous labour is described as having an excellent deterrent effect. The men, too, are more accustomed to labour when they leave than when they entered the prison. They are thus improved as well as punished.

Sometimes a prisoner refuses to do the work. What happens? The man thinks that he can defy the authorities. He lies down and absolutely refuses to work. The guards are forbidden to use force in such cases. They take him back to his cell, and send for the superintendent. The man is urged to carry the pingo, and told that he will be caned in five minutes if he does not. He does not believe in the threat. His reply is almost always the same—"Though you were to kill me, I won't do the

work." He is at once put on the "triangle,"¹ and receives six cuts. He is then informed that if he does not go instantly to work he will have six more next morning. In almost every case the prisoner at once walks to his work, and continues it without further resistance.

Considerable discussion has occurred among the officials whether it is better to give five or six cuts, or fifteen to twenty. The lighter punishment has proved by far the wiser one. It has the great advantage that it can be repeated almost at once if necessary, whereas the more severe cannot. The Reports are convincing on the point that certainty, not severity, of punishment exercises greater influence, and is more deterrent.

The tread-mill is so well known that it is needless to describe it as employed in the Ceylon jails. It is regarded as distinctly deterrent. Those who have seen prisoners on it will readily believe so! At Welikada, of thirty-two men at the "mill," twenty-four are on, and eight off. Those who are on work for fifteen minutes, those who are off rest for five minutes. The men must make fifty-six paces a minute, and be at the mill eight hours a day. In such a climate this is certainly hard, monotonous, and deterrent work!

¹ So I suppose. This instrument was shown me. A man's hands and feet are fastened to two sides; his face is turned towards the third side. Thus he cannot see what is coming behind. No doubt his imagination is at work!

Husk-beating is another form of punishment. Men are separated in small cubicles, open only to the view of the warder in charge, supplied with a mallet and three and a half pounds of cocoa-nut husk. This must be beaten out, and the prisoner forfeits marks if the proper amount is not completed before night. The solitude of the prisoner makes his punishment more severe.

Every male, on admission, is put to the forty-pound pingo, or on the "mill" for four days. At the end of that time (unless his sentence is for a month only, or a still shorter time) he can elect to do husk-beating. But he must fulfil his daily task, and beat out three and a half pounds. If he fails to do so, he goes back to "pingo" for seven days, after which he may elect to do husk-beating again. If he fails twice to do this work properly, he is sent back to "pingo," but must now carry fifty pounds! To carry fifty pounds for eight hours a day under a blazing Ceylon sun is undoubtedly a severe, monotonous, and, I should think, a very deterrent task!

No difference is made (as at Singapore) between Europeans and natives. There is no separation, and no separate European prison. At Singapore I was sorry to see several European prisoners; at Colombo sailors are the chief offenders. If captains were required to pay for the cost of the sailors from their ships sent to prison, the numbers would probably not be so large.

The conflict of opinion between the medical and prison authorities on the question of diet is at times very serious. Great mortality has occurred in some prisons during the last few years, causing much anxiety to all concerned. Many criminals come from malarial districts, and bring the seeds of disease with them. Confinement soon tells on such men. All, too, have been accustomed to the open air, and suffer as soon as their liberty is curtailed. The admission of more light and air into their cells has done great good, as well as the exercise in pingo-carrying under open sheds. The doctor in one prison, thinking the low diet the chief cause of illness, placed every prisoner in any way ailing, in hospital, where there is no limit upon the food that may be given. The results are summarised by the Superintendent of the Convict Establishment, in the table below. Penal diet, given only to prisoners sentenced to one month or less, continues to give the best results, though condemned by the Medical Officer as "unphysiological diet."

Total of all Prisoners admitted into Convict Establishments, and fed exclusively on Penal Diet No. 1	1500	Admitted into Hospital.	Died.	Percentage—	
				of Sick.	of Deaths.
		169	1	11·2	0·6
Total of other Prisoners receiving other and (in the Medical Officer's opinion) much better diets	4500	4041	44	Percentage—	
				of Sick.	of Deaths.
				89·6	1·08

The Superintendent thus describes the state of things when the doctor has his way. "A prisoner now admits that he can pass his days comfortably in prison, and no wonder. He is better fed than an honest man; sent to hospital for the slightest ailment; sometimes kept there for months, fed upon chickens, mutton, Mellin's food, fresh milk, etc., with the best brands of brandy and whisky procurable for stimulants. In a few cases he does not perform a week's hard labour during his whole sentence. In many others he leaves hospital only to go to an invalid jail, where he receives a diet; and he will never get outside."

Happily the Inspector-General of Prisons has all these and other facts before him, and in due course sets matters right.

The penal "unphysiological" diet is as follows:—

Morning meal: two ounces of rice in Congee.¹

Mid-day: eight ounces of bread. *Evening*: eight ounces of bread.

Here it will be seen that three meals a day are given; in the Egyptian prisons there are two only. The Inspector, in his Report, states that 3,966 prisoners underwent, in 1896, a sentence of a month or less on this diet, yet only two died.

The Bertillon system of anthropometrical measurement of prisoners is now in force throughout Ceylon. Very few prisoners previously convicted can now

¹ Described to me as a kind of rice starch.

escape identification; their measure is too well known! The percentage of habitual criminals received into prison after conviction in Ceylon is 20·61, whereas in England in 1895 the same percentage was 55·6.

It is satisfactory to learn that the short and sharp systems of punishment (pingo, tread-mill, and penal diet) are a great success. Punishments, too, for prison offences have lessened since these were introduced, with corporal punishment behind them. "Longer-sentence" men (as they are called) at a certain stage are sent to quarry stones for Colombo harbour, or to enlarge the breakwater there.

The following history, given in one of the Reports, tells a tale of the trials which sometimes attend a superintendent's or a warder's life. Corporal punishment, it appears, has greatly diminished from the certainty attending its infliction if prisoners refuse to obey orders. But what could be done in the following case? A man was sent into one of the jails who had been living on the reputation of being slightly insane. He used to steal openly anything he fancied. The villagers were unwilling to prosecute. At last he took to stealing cattle, was arrested, and convicted. When he came before the prison officials, his insanity was soon found to be feigned. But he refused to work at all. After due warning, he was caned. He still refused to mount the tread-mill,

take the pingo, or lift the mallet for husk-beating. The authorities dared not give in ; other prisoners would have followed suit. After twenty-five floggings, he gave way, and did his work well ! Perseverance even in punishment is sometimes a duty.

CHAPTER XIV.

INDIAN OCEAN, RED SEA, AND EGYPT.

THE voyage from Ceylon to Suez, even in fair weather, in a steamer running an average of twelve knots an hour, occupies about eleven days. We had not been two days away from the island

"Where every prospect pleases,
And only man is vile"

when we passed a lighthouse on a rock, standing in mid-ocean, with its friendly flashing light warning us to keep well away. More ships were seen than we had met even in the Atlantic Ocean or China Sea; in traversing the Pacific from Vancouver to Yokohama we scarcely saw a sail. The cliffs of Socotra, rising perpendicularly, then opening and disclosing a view of low-lying land, then once again rising abruptly, offer a refreshing change from the "waste of waters" which surrounds us day after day. The brown and arid coast of Arabia, with precipitous heights near the shore, soon appears; on a prominent position is a Turkish fort, with barrack not far off. We keep away from Aden, the Gibraltar of the



GROUP AT THE GREAT PYRAMID.

Red Sea, but we see Perim, the island at the entrance of the sea, very plainly. It looks larger than I had imagined it to be, yet lies low and dreary ; we could discover in it neither hill, tree, nor any sign of cultivation. Mocha, bright and white in the sunshine on the Eastern side, was quite visible ; it recalled earlier days, when Mocha coffee was better known than now. After two warm days in the Red Sea, the weather changed, and became so cool, not to say cold, that the officers appeared in their dark cloth coats, and passengers could no longer be out on deck.

The Red Sea and excessive heat seem inseparable ideas, yet the weather for the last two days of our voyage (February 1898) was cold. The winter in Egypt, we learnt subsequently, had been exceptionally cold ; a non-commissioned officer accustomed to Egyptian heat described the Soudan as " cold " in February.

Ere long we were in the Gulf of Suez, and the channel was narrowing. Vessels were more frequent, and the Canal was evidently not far off. We were told that Mount Sinai was in the distance, and before many hours we anchored in the channel which leads to the entrance of the Canal. Vessels must wait their turn to enter.

Suez lies low, but not far away on the western side are the bold and menacing Ataka mountains, relieving the monotony of land on the Arabian side.

The white houses of Suez, with their green blinds, are evidently of French construction. To the new-comer they look neat and nice. The channel at the head of the gulf, leading to the Canal, is about three hundred yards across, and is carefully buoyed. Ships are entrusted to French pilots, and must not proceed faster than five miles an hour. The shifting character of the banks renders this regulation most necessary.

There are docks at Suez, but the vessels in them did not seem numerous. The sides of the Canal are being gradually bricked where occasion requires; yet in some places the sand at times gives way, and incessant vigilance alone can maintain the Canal in a condition to admit of the transit of large vessels.

We boast of our progress, and think that the Suez Canal is one of the wonders of the world, yet, as a matter of fact, M. de Lesseps only followed in the footsteps of great men who had preceded him. A little to the north of Ismailia is Kantara, and Kantara signifies "a bridge." The name indicates that in earlier times there existed a bridge or ford at this place. Nekan (B.C. 610) began a canal at Bubastis, in Lower Egypt, between the Nile and the Red Sea. This was continued by Darius, and at a later date Ptolemy Philadelphus added a lock to it. When the present canal was being made, granite blocks and slabs were found with the name of Darius

inscribed in Persian cuneiform characters and in hieroglyphics.

As ruins of buildings were also discovered, it is conjectured that a series of buildings was erected along the line of the old canal, which was restored, and probably completed, by Darius.¹

The fresh-water canal from Bulâk (part of Cairo) to Suez, with an aqueduct to Port Said, is a very noticeable feature of the desert. Near the northern part of the canal, trees, at present of no great size, are growing on the banks. These may in time tend to mitigate the rainless character of the desert; and, curiously enough, the carriage windows were wet with rain on our journey by rail from Ismailia to Cairo.

Travellers from the East land in Egypt either at Suez, Ismailia, or Port Said. Before reaching Ismailia, about half-way on the Canal, ships traverse the Bitter Lakes, fifteen miles long. The Canal is a hundred miles long, including the passage through the Lakes. The water in these lakes was formerly fresh, but sea-water from the Mediterranean was admitted in March, 1869, and the Canal opened for traffic in November of the same year. The Lake of Timsah (or the Crocodile Lake) is soon reached. Here a launch meets the vessel and conveys

¹ See Dr. Bridge's interesting "Notes on the Nile." A monument was erected on a rock by Darius to tell passers-by that the canal of early ages was made by his command.

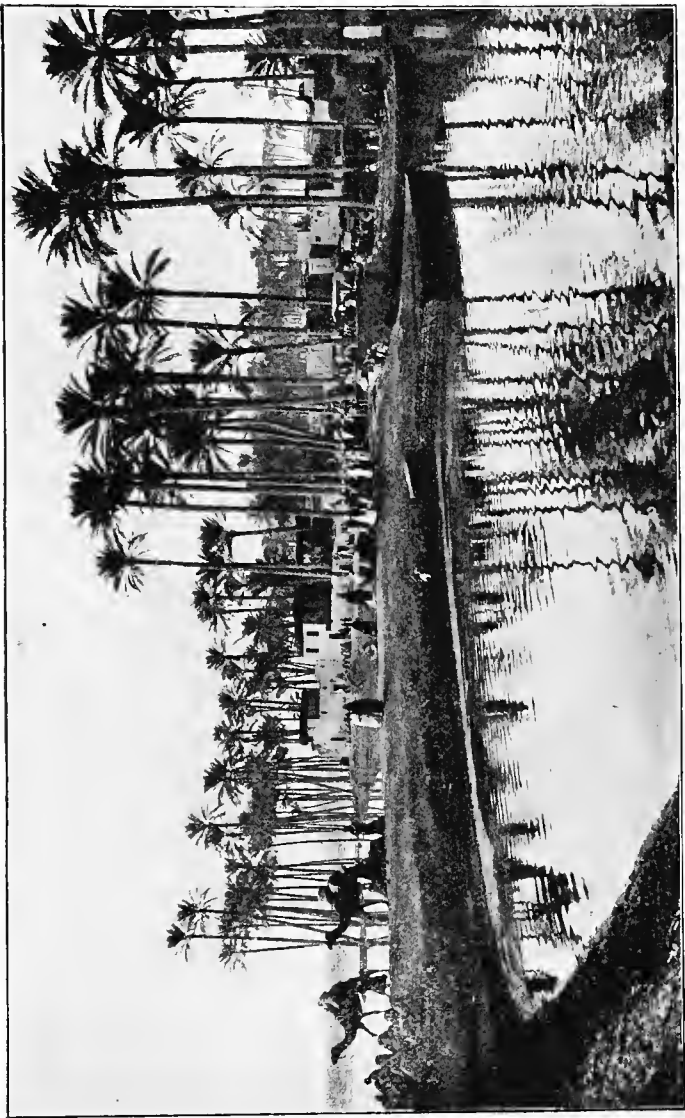
passengers to Ismailia, the head-quarters of the staff employed in keeping the Canal in good working order.

The weather at midnight in February was very cold, and the wind during the daytime reminded me of the Riviera and the biting winds that often blow there towards nightfall. The natives, even at midday, were glad to find a sheltered, sunny spot, and to protect their faces and heads with their loose-flowing robes.

Ismailia is a very sandy place, yet it deserves notice for one special reason. Here are avenues of trees planted by the French, and reflecting the greatest credit on them. These, I believe, were first planted at the time when the fresh-water canal (which passes through Ismailia) and the Suez Canal were constructed, and appear to be about thirty years old. They afford a shade which must be most welcome in the burning heat; they also form a contrast to the glaring sands around them, thus relieving the eye as well as the body.

The trees in these avenues are commonly called the acacia of the Nile, or *sunt*-tree, but are properly (according to Baedeker) the "lebbek" (*Albizzia lebbek*).

In 1869 the Khedive Ismail induced M. Barillet to migrate from Paris to Egypt, where he has left an enduring monument to himself in some of the noblest and most useful avenues that exist anywhere.



SCENES AT BEDRECHEN ON THE NILE

He selected this tree chiefly for the avenue that lines the western side of the Nile opposite to Cairo, and the long road leading thence to the Pyramids. This tree grows very rapidly in height and bulk, soon forming the leafy canopy which forest-men love, affording, too, a grateful shade where otherwise the heat and dust combined would be stifling. One valuable characteristic of the tree is that large branches may be planted, and will strike root and thrive. It is worthy of note that at Ismailia and elsewhere these trees are carefully thinned and kept in good order.

The journey from Ismailia to Cairo is a revelation to the new-comer. Desert and sand surround him on all sides at first. Ere long Tel-el-Kebir, so famous for the defeat of Arabi Pasha in 1882, is reached, and the country is still a desert. Soon, however, after the scene of the great fight has been passed, the appearance of the country changes. Cultivated, well-watered fields may be noticed in every direction. The land of Goshen lay to the east of the Delta, extending as far as Lake Timsah; and this district is still a land of Goshen. The fresh-water canal from Cairo to Suez flows through the district, and irrigation is seen everywhere.

Large crops of cotton are raised. Zagazig, near the once famous city of Bubastis, is the centre of the cotton trade, and contains about 40,000 inhabitants. Numerous trucks full of coal were standing near

the station as we passed, ready to be unloaded. From Zagazig to Cairo there is evidence on all sides of industry ; but the flat-topped houses, or rather hovels of the "fellaheen," do not generally give a stranger an exalted idea of home comforts amongst the Egyptians.

Yet the people generally seem to me to contrast favourably with the Sinhalese, Malays, and even the Chinese in their own countries. They are often fine men, well nurtured and sufficiently well clothed. No half-clad, nearly nude natives are to be seen in the markets around Cairo ; well-to-do and well-dressed Egyptians, Levantines, Copts, as well as Italians and other European immigrants, with the favourite fez, are there in hundreds and thousands. The lentils, broad beans, and onions, which form a chief element in the food of the people, may in some degree account for their condition ; the milk, too, of goats, sheep, or buffaloes is taken, though usually when turned sour. The British rule, too, has made Egypt so prosperous that signs of progress and increasing comfort are visible in all parts.

The costumes, however, are not so picturesque. Large numbers are clad wholly in black, and some, especially Indians, wholly in white. The peasants at market often have a black woollen cloak, comfortable, but not artistically striking. Women, too, are usually in black, with a covering over the faces in most cases, the eyes only being exposed. There are, however, many bright dresses.

The dragomans and guides often wear rich silk garments, rather like a long waistcoat, in front. The consul's servants wear brightly embroidered dresses, very resplendent behind, and the men on the carriages, and the runners, often have gorgeous turbans and scarfs. The donkey-boys are usually dressed in long, blue, loose garments, and even the boatmen on the Nile are encumbered in the same way. The turban, duly wound seven times around, is the headdress of almost all the peasants.

Cairo, with its striking combination of East and West, its countless minarets, bazaars, and narrow streets, its Coptic churches and more modern mosques, has been so often described that I will not attempt the task of portraying it. The Coptic churches of Old Cairo are among the most ancient links between the present and the past, and quite a study in themselves. But the University of El-Azhar, and the prisons, interested me chiefly. The latter will require a special notice.

The University of El Azhar is at the mosque of that name in the centre of Cairo. It has six gates, and there is no difficulty now in obtaining admission. Tickets are obtained by the guide beforehand, and the gate-keeper accompanies the visitors and expects his "baksheesh," according to universal custom. The minarets of the mosque are striking objects, both from the street and inner court. The receptacles for books, shown on entrance, are by no means

attractive, but the open court in the centre, with students lying in groups or stretched out asleep, gives a very Oriental tone to the place. There are no chairs or other modern luxuries, such as sofas or easy-chairs. Imagine Oxford or Cambridge men lying on the ground eating thin cakes, like the Jewish unleavened bread, and drinking water at a tap, as is done at El Azhar!

Some sects among the Mohammedans, *e.g.* the Wahabees, forbid tobacco, regarding it as intoxicating; and some of the Indian soldiers in the British army who are Mohammedans will not touch it. I saw some of these at Hong Kong, and was assured by the commanding officer that they were forbidden by their religion to use tobacco. None of the students—we saw them in their leisure time, during the feast of Bairam¹—were indulging either in alcohol or tobacco!

The number of students who attend was given by our guide as 20,000. He probably knew nothing beyond common report. "The number varies," says Dr. Bridge, "from 10,000 to 13,000." In Baedeker (1885 edition) precise details are supplied, and the number sinks to 7,700, taught by 231 sheiks, or professors. I was taken round a considerable part

¹ There are two feasts of Bairam or Beiram (Turkish and Persian words), one at the close of the fast Ramadan, corresponding to our Easter, the other, the lesser Bairam, seventy days after.

of the building, and did not see 500 in all ; but a large proportion were no doubt absent, as high holiday was being observed.

Besides the central court, there is a large enclosed colonnade (the *Lîwân*¹ of the mosque). Here are three hundred and eighty pillars of various kinds and stones, to which the guide points with great pride. The prayer-niches and the pulpit are prominent features. The absence of images in this and other mosques should not pass unnoticed. The Moslem religion forbids the representation of any human form.

On three sides of the central court there are compartments set apart for the students from different districts of the Moslem world. Into several of these I was admitted. The students were sitting on the ground cross-legged, or lying at length. There are twenty or more divisions, but the largest numbers come from Upper Egypt. Students from Arabia, Syria, West Africa, the northern provinces of the Turkish Empire, and other parts, are usually there.

The customary period of study is three years, but some students remain in the mosque nearly, if not quite, double that time. No fees are required. The endowments of the mosque meet the expenses of

¹ The *Lîwân* is the part containing the sacred vessels: the *kibla*, or prayer-niche, turned towards Mecca ; the *mambar*, or pulpit, whence the faithful are addressed ; the *kursi*, or reading-desk ; lamps, etc. It is usually covered with carpets or mats.

the students. The professors are supported by donations from their pupils, by private teaching, or filling some office to which a payment is attached, or in some other way. Their salaries are evidently not excessive !

The teacher sits cross-legged on a straw mat and reads from a book, or directs a student to read whilst he explains. The others sit around, listen, and take notes. The student is expected in time to know by heart the whole of the book which is being studied. When he can repeat all the contents, an entry is made in his own copy to that effect by his teacher, and he is henceforth entitled to lecture on it.

This University, founded in 975 A.D., now nearly a thousand years old, has had and still has such a wide influence over the Eastern world that it is important to know what subjects are chiefly taught.

The first subject in a country where Arabic is the universal language is naturally the Arabic grammar. Next follows what is called religious science. The introduction to this consists of a series of lectures on the attributes of God and of the Prophet, *i.e.* of the unity of God. The chief attributes of God are said to number twelve—existence, source of all being, eternity, independence, unity, omnipotence, omniscience, will, life, vision, hearing, speech. When "religious science" has been mastered, "law" follows. This is based on the study of the

Koran and of tradition. The former embraces such questions as fasting during the month of Ramadan, the pilgrimage to Mecca ; the latter the law of the Koran, the decisions of judges in special and difficult cases. Other subjects are also taught, such as the proper pronounciation of letters, the proper manner of reciting the Koran, logic, rhetoric, and the art of poetry.

Who can wonder that the Mohammedan world makes no progress and refuses to receive fresh ideas? Algebra, geometry, and astronomy, for which the Arabs of old were famous, have been laid aside ; the Koran, one of the strangest compounds of Judaism and Christianity that man ever devised, has become imbedded in the hearts of millions. The memory, rather than the mind, is exercised. The teaching is based entirely on the Koran, and commentaries on it. El-Azhar as a university exercises perhaps more influence than any other in existence, yet one may rightly hope that a better and more enlightened day will arise.

CHAPTER XV.

EGYPTIAN PRISONS.

THE defeat of Arabi Pasha at Tel-el-Kebir in 1882 has proved to be one of the decisive battles of the latter part of the nineteenth century. Since that event Egypt has been passing more and more under British control ; and, by the testimony even of enemies, the improvement in the condition of the people has been simply marvellous. Not only has order been evolved out of chaos in financial matters, but the social condition of the people has advanced in an equally gratifying degree.

The management of the prisons has happily kept pace with the general progress of the country. When the British Government undertook the charge of Egypt, they sent out the energetic Mr. Clifford Lloyd to put everything right as soon as possible.¹ He found the prisons in a shocking condition ; and Major Chermiside, who reported upon them in 1889, described them as bad almost beyond belief. Their management was so barbarous, so senseless, that the

¹ See Sir Alfred Milner's " England in Egypt."

introduction of modern principles and methods could not fail to do enormous good. Mr. Clifford Lloyd created a new Department for Prisons, and put an Englishman at its head. The work of this Department has gone on for fifteen years almost without interruption. Although the provincial prisons are still wanting in many important details, being very deficient with regard to construction and special appliances, they are at all events clean, decent, and properly supervised, and exhibit the greatest contrast to the hells they were in former times.¹

By the kind permission of Coles Pasha, I was permitted to visit two of the largest ; one at Tura, the other at Gîzeh. These are described by Sir Alfred Milner as "in every way model establishments." This expression is rather in excess of the view which persons conversant with modern systems would take of them, yet they reflect the greatest credit on the Department and the responsible authorities. I have also to thank Coles Pasha for furnishing me with valuable details.

There are upwards of eleven thousand prisoners in Egypt, and the budget of the Egyptian prisons is under £3,800 ! Coles Pasha thus has eleven thousand persons on his hands, and an allowance of less than seven shillings per head made for them. Here is a task that appears impossible. But difficulties are made for brave men to conquer. There are

¹ Milner's "England in Egypt."

moral and social as well as military and naval victories. Coles Pasha must justly be regarded as a victorious general on a field of great usefulness.

Egyptian prisoners have been expected to feed and clothe themselves. This state of things continues in most prisons, but not at Tura or at Gîzeh. I was told indeed that I should find five hundred short-sentence prisoners at Tura "not clothed." I had anticipated a sight such as any traveller in the "Far East" often witnesses. But the meaning was clear when I learnt that the five hundred had their own clothes, as their sentences were short. They are not clothed by the Government, as other prisoners are at these two prisons.

Tura, as the name of the place is spelt in the official reports, or Torah, as on the railway tickets issued by a French company, is at no great distance south of Cairo. The citadel of Cairo can be plainly seen from the quarries where the men work. These limestone quarries have been worked for some thousands of years. From them a great part of the material used in the construction of the Pyramids so close at hand was drawn. Stone is still there in abundance. The sale of the large quantities quarried by the convicts is one secret of Coles Pasha's success in feeding and clothing so many inmates as there are at Tura and Gîzeh, and also in meeting other claims. The stone goes to Cairo for houses and streets, to Helouan, the fashionable and rising water-

ing-place¹ in the desert, to the Barrage below Cairo, and elsewhere.

I was welcomed at Tura by the Governor, Mr. Carton de Viert, a Belgian (wearing as usual the fashionable fez), and have to thank him for a most cordial reception. He pointed to the ruins of a fort rising not far away and overlooking the Nile (the prison is on the bank of the river), and told me that Napoleon I. had selected the spot when in Egypt, as commanding the Nile. A Belgian would take an interest in one whose fate was finally decided on a Belgian battle-field.

The Governor has charge of fifteen hundred men. Of these a thousand are convicts sentenced to penal servitude. We mounted an engine used in drawing trucks, and were whirled away to the quarries. A large number of men were there engaged under the charge of warders. Outside, in the desert, was a guard of Soudanese soldiers stationed at intervals to prevent desertion. But escape is difficult as well as dangerous. The heavy irons and chains worn by the men attract immediate attention. They are probably relics of the old state of things. Those used in Singapore prison, chiefly for the Chinese, are quite elegant compared with these. These Soudanese guards are part of a military detachment of the Egyptian army,

¹ There are valuable sulphur and other mineral waters at Helouan; the air, too, is dry and bracing during the winter months. The German hotel there is cheap and clean.

and are two hundred strong. They were described to me as excellent and efficient. The colour of their skin is black as night, and forms a remarkable contrast to that of many of the prisoners. The jealousy existing between these Soudanese and the native Egyptians may render the former more vigilant in watching over their neighbours when in trouble.

After visiting the quarries we were taken to the part where a new prison on modern principles is being built by the prisoners. On the way we passed a grave-yard in the desert, where those who die in confinement are buried. The sight is a touching one. In the new wing there will be a large number of cells for solitary confinement. At present the prisoners are unavoidably thrown together, to the detriment of discipline. We noticed a large number of short-sentence prisoners breaking stones. Others were making bricks from the soil just outside the prison, reminding one of the Israelites and their tasks when slaves in Egypt. Most of them wore their own clothes, but police soldiers, as they are called, sentenced by court-martial, had a special cap, and worked in a separate gang.

Both here and at Gîzeh solitary confinement in a darkened cell is the chief punishment. This is said to be very effectual. New arrivals are, as far as possible, tamed in this way. Bread and water is the only food allowed them while under correction. There is no tread-mill, and no Ceylonese "pingo," but

the triangle and the cat-o'-nine-tails are in reserve, should necessity arise. The "rattan" (or cane) does not appear to be used.

I paid a long visit to Gîzeh. It lies on the western side of the hill opposite to Cairo, near the Gîzeh Palace, now famous for its Egyptian antiquities. It has accommodation for six hundred men and a hundred and forty women. It is the only prison for women in Egypt.

Here I was welcomed by Mr. Renfee, the Governor. He is an Englishman, and a native of East Cambridge-shire. He has served for fifteen years under Coles Pasha, and saw Arabi Pasha leave Egypt for exile in Ceylon. His fifteen years of hard work do not appear to have told severely upon him: responsibility sits lightly upon some few favourites of fortune. The work at Tura is extra-mural; at Gîzeh it is intra-mural and industrial.

There are, of course, rules common to both prisons. Thus there are three classes (as in many other prisons) into which the prisoners are divided. The well behaved and industrious gain marks, by which they rise to a higher class, obtain privileges and partial remission of sentence. This remission does not usually exceed one-quarter of the entire sentence.

At both prisons there are two meals only a day. The first is at 10 a.m., the second at 5 p.m. The food in the morning is rice and lentil soup, eaten

with bread, and washed down with water. The second meal consists of bread and water ; but every other day buffalo gravy soup and spinach, or some other vegetable, are added.

I was present at Gizeh when the prisoners had their breakfast. The round loaves of bread made at Tura prison had a plentiful allowance of bran, yet no doubt were appreciated. The men had had half an hour's exercise and three hours' work. The lentil soup and rice were in large tin pans, and placed at regular intervals in a spacious, open yard before the men arrived. The loaves were handed by an orderly (a prisoner is appointed as orderly in every ward). He "draws" the bread for those in his ward (knowing each man in it), and as they march up in double file, hand-in-hand, he distributes the bread to them. They then march as before, one man still holding his fellow's hand, until they are in the yard, when sections of eight or ten sit round the pans. On a given signal they dip their bread in the rice and lentil soup until a clearance has been made. When a man has finished, he rises and goes to the wall, and stands with his face towards it. This method of making them face the wall prevents them from seeing what is going on, or making jests of any kind. The warders, too, are able, unobserved, to watch them, and anticipate any violence or misconduct.

There were five hundred and thirty prisoners in the

yard under the charge of ten warders only. These warders are generally Egyptians. The Governor is the only European in the Gîzeh prison, and Mr. Viert the only one at Tura.

There are no European prisoners in this or any other Egyptian prison. British soldiers (there are now¹ nearly ten thousand in Egypt, most of them splendid fellows and looking very healthy) are sent for offences to a military prison. Special prisons are attached to each consulate. The consul of each foreign Government tries them, and usually sends them back to their own land. Coles Pasha is thus happily freed from the worry of keeping these unruly ones.

The industries at Gîzeh form an important feature of the prison *régime*, and materially assist Coles Pasha's budget. In company with the Governor I visited the various workshops. The sight of so many men, sometimes twenty or more in one room or covered yard, using knives and other tools which might be put to deadly purpose rather alarmed me at first. But the Governor assured me that they were well behaved. There had been no corporal punishment for over two months. They appeared cowed and quiet. The Egyptians, he thinks, would be a splendid race, were it not for their Mohammedan religion and belief in fatalism.

A large number were engaged in basket-making

¹ February 1898.

in its various details. These baskets are used for carrying soil on camels or donkeys. They are slung one on each side of the animals, conveying their burdens from and to the fields after the crops have been gathered and before the annual inundation begins. These carrier-camels may often be seen marching to their destination in a string of six or seven, led by a young lad. The baskets are made of the leaf of the palm. The date-palm is found everywhere, but especially near the Nile. Some cut the leaf into strips of the right length, others twist them into shape, and others again sew and finish them. For these baskets there is a great demand.

Rope-making is another industry. Some of the prisoners were cleaning flax, others spinning and weaving, and a third section making canvas garments from it. Brushes, too, are made, chiefly out of Mexican fibre. These are made specially for Government contracts, and are sent chiefly to the barracks and police. A special brush for cleaning a new filter, for use by the troops going up the Nile, was being manufactured. Wool is also spun and made into blankets. The flour for the two prisons is ground and baked at Tura, and reappears here in part as bread. A few men were busy at saddlery; others again at the sewing machine, making clothes for the prisoners. Of course the shoemaker was there; how would the world do without him? The Egyptians are



fond of a large red and yellow slipper, used often without sock or stocking, and itself without any pretence to shape or elegance. These are largely made, and sold usually for seven piastres (about 1s. 6d.) the pair. Carpenters, too, are at work, but I did not notice many. Mats are made from cocoanut fibre, but I did not see any "husk-beating," as it is called in Ceylon. In the latter country this husk-beating is solitary work, each man having a separate shed; but in Egypt the men work up the fibre in companies.

The dormitories at Gîzeh are large and airy, as well as clean, as they well need be in such a climate. Sickness is frequently the scourge of prisons, and in Ceylon the death-rate has at times been alarming. But at the time of my visit there was scarcely any illness at Gîzeh. There had been only one death for three months. At Tura a kind of "relapsing fever" (said Mr. Viert) was prevalent, and the deaths averaged about ten a month, the usual average being six to eight.

The female side of the prison at Gîzeh contains over a hundred prisoners usually, and is under the charge of Mrs. Renfee, assisted by a French lady as her vicegerent. This department is the weak point of the prison, as the accommodation is not sufficient for proper discipline. Corporal punishment is not permitted, and there are very few solitary cells. The women are described as in every

respect very ignorant. Herded together, without sufficient employment, they are also very troublesome. Among the men, prisoners are found skilled in most practical arts, and capable of acting as instructors, obtaining marks and privileges accordingly. But Egypt has not hitherto cared for its females. They do, however, sewing, weaving, and laundry-work, and other industries are to be introduced. One great drawback is the absence of proper hospital accommodation. There is no infectious ward, and great difficulties arise in consequence. Coles Pasha, however, is acquainted with all these facts. What can he do with a budget limited to £3,800 per annum, and eleven thousand prisoners on his hands? The civil Departments in Egypt are not permitted to enter on any fresh expenditure, as the Soudan war swallows up the surplus there would otherwise be.

In all the prisons Friday is observed (as usual in the Mohammedan world) as the Sabbath. Work goes on, however, after 10 a.m. "Idleness," says our proverb, "is the parent of vice"; and employment for the prisoners is essential to keep them out of mischief.

Warders are searched here, as in other prisons. Special "searchers" have this delicate task entrusted to them. Dismissal and sometimes sharp punishment follow any attempt to convey forbidden articles into prison

My chief feeling on leaving these prisons is admiration for the men who manage such shipwrecks of humanity with so much skill and so much kindness ; admiration, too, for the chief who, with such scanty and insufficient funds, produces such remarkable results

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